

T H E
LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL
M A G A Z I N E,
A N D
B R I T I S H R E V I E W,
For S E P T E M B E R, 1792.

BIOGRAPHICAL ANECDOTES OF WARREN HASTINGS, Esq.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

WARREN HASTINGS, Esq. is descended from an ancient and respectable family in the county of Worcester, where his ancestors for several centuries possessed considerable property. He was born in the year 1730, and was educated at Westminster school, where he displayed such marks of genius and abilities, as particularly attracted the notice of Dr. Nichols, the master of that seminary.

In the year 1750, Mr. Hastings was appointed a writer in the service of the East India Company at Bengal. Soon after his arrival in India, he applied himself with great diligence to the study of the Persian and Hindostan languages; and in this he succeeded so much, that he was made choice of as a proper person to attempt the establishing of a factory in the interior parts of Bengal, where no European had ever before appeared. This scheme, however, proved unsuccessful; but Mr.

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Hastings conciliated the esteem of the natives so much upon this occasion, that when he was taken prisoner by the troops of Surajah Dowlah, they shewed evident signs of the great respect they entertained for him, by treating him with the utmost humanity and attention.

In a little time after the fortune of the war changed, and Surajah Dowlah, who had laid a plan for annihilating the power of the English in India, exhibited a striking instance of the uncertainty of human affairs. From a state of the most flourishing prosperity, he was plunged into the most distressing misery, being defeated, dethroned, and at length put to death by his successor, Meer Jaffer.

As it was necessary for the English to have a resident at the court of this prince, Colonel, afterwards Lord Clive, appointed Mr. Hastings to that important office, in which he conducted himself in such a manner,

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ner, as to give general satisfaction, and which he continued to hold till he became a member of the administration in Bengal.

In 1765, he returned to England with his friend Mr. Vanfittart, at which period he possessed a very moderate fortune. In 1769, he was appointed second in council at Madras, where he remained till the month of February, 1772, when he returned to Bengal, being appointed Governor of that settlement by the East India Directors.

At the time when Mr. Hastings took upon him the supreme management of the British territories in India, the affairs of the Company, owing to improper conduct both at home and abroad, were in a state of the utmost distress and confusion.

In less than two years, however, after this gentleman assumed the direction of them, the credit of the Company was revived, the confidence of the public returned, and the measures pursued in India seemed to give universal satisfaction.

It was unfortunate, however, for the interest of the British affairs in India, that the gentlemen joined with Mr. Hastings in the administration. Mr. Barwell only excepted, had imbibed violent prejudices against him; and on their arrival at Calcutta, they commenced a violent opposition, which was continued with great injury to the Company's affairs, till the death of Colonel Monson.

During this unhappy contest, in which every measure of Mr. Hastings' former administration, and even his character, were attacked, he neither lost his temper, nor suffered in his health, but continued to conduct himself with such caution and prudence, that little advantage could be taken of him by his adversaries. The death of Colonel Monson, and that of General Clavering, made at length a very material alteration in the conduct of the leading men of this country towards him; and he has had the honour of being three times appointed by the

legislature to the supreme government of Bengal.

The conduct of no man in public life has perhaps been more strictly scrutinized, or more rigidly enquired into, than that of Mr. Hastings; but if he has been powerfully attacked, he has been ably defended, and the warmth of his friends has been as zealously displayed as the inveterate rancour of his enemies. Twice did a majority of the Directors resolve to remove him, and twice was he preserved in his station by the suffrages of the great body of his constituents. In the year 1776, the power of government was exerted against him, and every influence used, by the ministers, at the India House, to have him removed, but a majority of the proprietors defeated their designs, and established him at Bengal. On May the 28th, 1782, the House of Commons voted that it was the duty of the Court of Directors to remove Mr. Hastings from his government. In consequence of this vote, the Court of Directors again took into consideration the state of their affairs, and on the 22d of October determined, by a majority of thirteen to ten, that he should be recalled: the proprietors, however, on the 24th and 31st of the same month, determined, by ballot, that he should remain at his station; the number for his continuance was 428 against 75, and in consequence of this resolution, the vote of recall was next day rescinded by the Directors.

In the month of June, 1785, Mr. Hastings returned from India to England, and in the year following he was impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors. His trial, which has been carried to a length unprecedented in history, is, it is to be hoped, now near a close, and will, in all probability, end in a very different manner from what his enemies expected.

Except a small interval, Mr. Hastings has been thirty-two years in the service of the East India Company, almost

almost eleven of which he was Governor of Bengal. To him the East India Company were indebted for the communication which was established between this country and India by the way of the Red Sea; but this communication is now stopped, as it was apprehended that a trade from Bengal to the Red Sea might affect the Company's sales in England. The communication, however, was kept open long enough to convey the Company's orders for the attack of Pondicherry, an event deemed at that time to be of the greatest national importance.

Among other objects which distinguished the governorship of Mr. Hastings, is his deputing Mr. Geo. Bogle to the Court of the Grand Lama, in Thibet, with a view of opening a trade between that country and Bengal. Mr. Bogle was received at the Court of the Grand Lama with the utmost kindness and hospitality; and a variety of curious information was procured respecting the country of Thibet, an account of which was published in the Philosophical Transactions by the late John Stuart, Esq. F.R.S. member of the supreme council at Bengal.

Mr. Hastings is an admirer and encourager of the fine arts. He excels as an engineer and an architect, and possesses no indifferent taste for poetry, as may be seen by the following imitation of the sixteenth Ode of the second book of Horace, written on board the Barrington, in his voyage to England in 1785, and addressed to John Shore, Esq.

Otium Divos, &c.

For ease the harrassed seaman prays,
When equinoctial tempests raise
The Cape's surrounding wave;
When hanging o'er the reef he hears
The cracking mast, and fees or fears,
Beneath, his watry grave.

For ease the slow Mahratta spoils,
And hardier Sik erratic toils,
While both their ease forego;
For ease, which neither gold can buy,
Nor robes, nor gems, which oft belye
The cover'd heart, bestow.

For neither gold nor gems combin'd
Can heal the soul or suffering mind.
Lo! where their owner lies:
Perch'd on his couch distemper breathes,
And care, like smoke, in turbid wreaths,
Round the gay ceiling flies.

He who enjoys, nor covets more,
The lands his father held before,
Is of true bliss possess'd,
Let but his mind unfetter'd tread
Far as the paths of knowledge lead,
And wife, as well as blest.

No fears his peace of mind annoy,
Left printed lies his fame destroy,
Which labor'd years have won;
Nor pack'd committees break his rest,
Nor avarice sends him forth in quest
Of climes beneath the sun.

Short is our span; then why engage
In schemes for which man's transient age
Was ne'er by fate design'd?
Why slight the gifts of nature's hand?
What wanderer from his native land
E're left himself behind?

The restless thought and wayward will,
And discontent attend him still,
Nor quit him while he lives;
At sea, care follows in the wind;
At land, it mounts the pad behind,
Or with the post-boy drives.

He who would happy live to-day,
Must laugh the present ills away,
Nor think of woes to come;
For come they will or soon or late,
Since mix'd at best is man's estate,
By heav'n's eternal doom.

To ripen'd age Clive liv'd renown'd,
With lacks enrich'd, with honours crown'd,
His valour's well-earn'd meed.
Too long, alas! he liv'd to hate
His envied lot, and died too late,
From life's oppression freed.

An early death was Elliott's doom;
I saw his opening virtues bloom,
And manly sense unfold,
Too soon to fade. I bade the stone
Record his name, 'midst *Hordes unknown,
Unknowing what it told.

To

* Mr. Elliott, (the brother of Sir Gilbert Elliott) died in October 1778, in his way to Manpore, the capital of Moodjee Boosla's dominions, being deputed on an embassy to that Prince by the Governor General and Council. A monument was erected to his memory on the spot where he was buried; and the Mahrattas have since built a town there, which is called Elliott's Gunge, or Elliott's Town.

To thee, perhaps, the Fates may give,
I wish they may, in health to live,
Herds, flocks, and fruitful fields;
Thy vacant hours in mirth to shine;
With these, the muse already thine,
Her present bounties yields.

For me, O Shore, I only claim,
To merit, not to seek for fame,
The good and just to please;
A state above the fear of want,
Domestic love, heaven's choicest grant,
Health, leisure, peace and ease.

Mr. Hastings, even amidst the bustle of political life, manifested always a strong propensity to literary pursuits; and among the number of his correspondents we find the late celebrated Dr. Johnson. Three letters to him from the Doctor have been preserved by Mr. Boswell; and as they tend to throw some light on the character of Mr. Hastings, we shall here subjoin copies of them.

To the Hon. WARREN HASTINGS, Esq.

Sir,

Though I have had but little personal knowledge of you, I have had enough to make me wish for more; and though it be now a long time since I was honoured by your visit, I had too much pleasure from it to forget it. By those whom we delight to remember, we are unwilling to be forgotten; and therefore I cannot omit this opportunity of reviving myself in your memory, by a letter which you will receive from the hands of my friend Mr. Chambers,* a man whose purity of manners and vigour of mind are sufficient to make every thing welcome that he brings.

That this is my only reason for writing, will be too apparent by the usefulness of my letter to any other purpose. I have no questions to ask; not that I want curiosity after either the ancient or present state of the regions in which you have seen all the power and splendour of wide-extended empire, and which is almost all that pride desires and luxury enjoys; but my knowledge of them is too scanty to furnish me with

proper topics of enquiry. I can only wish for information, and hope that a mind, comprehensive like yours, will find leisure amidst the cares of your important station, to enquire into many subjects of which the European world either thinks not at all, or thinks with deficient intelligence and uncertain conjecture. I shall hope that he who intended to increase the learning of his country, by the introduction of the Persian language, will examine nicely the traditions and histories of the east; that he will survey the wonders of its ancient edifices, and trace the vestiges of its ruined cities; and that at his return we shall know the arts and opinions of a race of men, from whom very little has been hitherto derived.

You, Sir, have no need of being told by me how much may be added by your attention and patronage to experimental knowledge and natural history. There are arts of manufacture practised in the countries in which you preside, which are yet very imperfectly known here, either to artificers or philosophers. Of the natural productions, animate and inanimate, we yet have so little intelligence, that our books are filled I fear with conjectures about things, which an Indian peasant knows by his senses.

Many of those things my first wish is to see; my second, to know by such accounts as a man like you will be able to give.

As I have no great skill to ask proper questions, I have likewise no such access to great men as can enable me to send you any political information of the agitations of an unsettled government, and the struggles of a feeble ministry. Care is doubtless taken to give you more exact accounts than I can obtain. If you are inclined to interest yourself much in public transactions, it is no misfortune to you to be distant from them.

That

* Now Sir Robert Chambers, one of his Majesty's Judges in India.

That literature is not wholly forsaking us, and that your favourite language is not neglected, will appear from the book * which I should have pleased myself more with sending, if I could have presented it bound; but time was wanting. I beg, however, Sir, that you will accept it from a man very desirous of your regard; and that if you think me able to gratify you by any thing more important, you will employ me.

I am now going to take leave, perhaps a very long leave of my dear Mr. Chambers. That he is going to live where you govern, may justly alleviate the regret of parting; and the hope of seeing both him and you again, which I am not willing to mingle with doubt, must at present comfort as it can, Sir,

Your most humble servant,
SAM. JOHNSON.

March 30, 1774.

To the Same.

Sir,
Being informed, that by the departure of a ship there is now an opportunity of writing to Bengal, I am unwilling to let slip out of your memory by my negligence, and therefore take the liberty of reminding you of my existence, by sending you a book which is not yet made public.

I have lately visited a region less remote, and less illustrious than India, which afforded some occasions for speculation; what occurred to me I have put into the volume,† of which I beg your acceptance.

Men of your station seldom have presents totally disinterested; my gift being received, let me now make my request.

There is somewhere within your government a young adventurer, one Chauncey Lawrence, whose father is one of my oldest friends. Be pleased to shew the young man what countenance is fit, whether he wants to be restrained by your authority,

or encouraged by your favour. His father is now President of the College of Physicians, a man venerable for his knowledge, and more venerable for his virtue.

I wish you a prosperous government, a safe return, and a long enjoyment of plenty and tranquillity.

I am, Sir,

Your most obedient,
And most humble servant,
SAM. JOHNSON.

London, Dec. 20, 1774.

*To the Hon. WARREN HASTINGS, Esq.
Governor General of Bengal.*

Sir,

Amidst the importance and multiplicity of affairs in which your great office engages you, I take the liberty of recalling your attention for a moment to literature, and will not prolong the interruption by an apology, which your character makes needless.

Mr. Hoole, a gentleman long known, and long esteemed in the India House after having translated Tasso, has undertaken Ariosto. How well he is qualified for his undertaking, he has already shewn. He is desirous Sir, of your favour in promoting the proposals, and flatters me by supposing that my testimony may advance his interest.

It is a new thing for a clerk of the India House to translate poets. It is new for a governor of Bengal to patronise learning. That he may find his ingenuity rewarded, and that learning may flourish under your protection, is the wish of, Sir,

Your most humble servant,
SAMUEL JOHNSON.

Jan. 9, 1781.

Mr. Boswell, speaking of the condescension with which Mr. Hastings communicated to him these letters, delineates the following short sketch of his character: "Warren Hastings, a man whose regard reflects dignity even upon Johnson; a
"man,

* Jones's Persian Grammar.

† Journey to the Western Islands of Scotland.

"man, the extent of whose abilities
 "was equal to that of his power;
 "and who, by those who are fortunate enough to know him in private life, is admired for his literature and taste, and beloved for the candour, moderation, and mildness of his character. Were I capable
 "of paying a suitable tribute of ad-

"miration to him, I should certainly
 "not withhold it at a moment *
 "when it is not possible that I
 "should be suspected of being an
 "interested flatterer. But how
 "weak would be my voice, after
 "that of millions whom he governed!"

BIOGRAPHIANA;

OR, ANECDOTES OF ILLUSTRIOUS PERSONS.

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RUBENS.

THE following character of this illustrious man, as well as great painter, is taken from a very scarce little book, published by De Piles, in 1681, in which he gives an account of the principal pictures in the collection of the Duc de Richelieu, second in succession to that title, after the celebrated Cardinal of that name.

The virtues which Rubens had acquired, and the many fine qualities which nature had bestowed on him, had rendered him amiable to all mankind. He was tall, majestic, his features regularly formed, had a colour in his cheeks, chestnut hair, his eyes brilliant but not fierce, an air jocund, kind, and honest. His address was engaging, his humour agreeable, his conversation easy, his mind lively and penetrating, his manner of speaking, and the tone of his voice, very agreeable; all which naturally rendered him eloquent and persuasive. While he was painting, he could talk with ease; and without quitting his work, could entertain those who came to see him.

The Queen Mary de Medicis took so much delight in his conversation, that during the whole time he was employed on the two paintings he executed at Paris, and which are among those in the Luxemburg

gallery, her majesty was always behind him, being as much charmed to hear him discourse, as to see him paint. She, one day, would introduce him to court, that he might judge of the beauty of the ladies; and having regarded them all very attentively, pointing to the most beautiful, "That must," says he, "be the Princess de Guéméné," as it really was. On which M. Botru asked him if he knew her. He replied, he never had the honour to see her before, and that he spoke only from the account he had received of the beauty of that Princess. He never formed any friendship but with people of merit, nor engaged in conversation but with persons of learning or merit, and who often came to see him to discourse of science and policy.

He entertained a considerable correspondence with many nobles, particularly of the court of Spain, with the Duke d'Olivarez, favourite and first minister of the catholic king, with the Marquis de Leganez, the Marquis Spinola, and many others, as appears by the letters which were found among his papers, most of which were in cyphers, and which are still preserved by his heirs.

Although he appeared to be much dissipated, yet his life was, however, very regular. He arose every day

day at four o'clock in the morning, and made it an invariable rule to begin the day by hearing mass, unless he was prevented by the gout, with which he was much afflicted; after which he went to his work, having always near him a reader, whom he kept in pay, who read aloud some good book, usually Plutarch, Titus Livius, or Seneca.

As he was pleased with work, he managed his time in such a manner, as to be able to work with ease without incommoding his health, and for that purpose he eat very little at dinner, for fear the vapour of the meat should prevent his application: or if he applied himself closely, that it should not prevent a digestion. Thus he laboured till six o'clock in the evening, when he mounted his horse, to take the air out of town, or on the ramparts; or else he employed himself in some other thing to amuse him.

At his return from this, he found usually some of his friends at his house, who came to sup with him, and who contributed to the pleasures of the table. He had, however, a great aversion to excess in wine, in eating, or in gaming. His greatest pleasure was to shew some fine Spanish horses, to read some book, to view and study his medals, his agates, cornelians, and other engraved stones, of which he had a very fine collection, which are at present in the cabinet of the King of Spain. As he painted from nature, and as he often had occasion to paint horses, he had in his stable some of the finest and most proper for that purpose.

Although he was much attached to his art, he was so great a husband of his time, that he always could give some portion to the study of the belles lettres, that is to say, history and the Latin poets, of the latter of which he was perfect master; and that language, as well as the Italian, he was quite familiar with, as we may judge from the manuscript observations he has left on

painting, wherein he has quoted some passages from Virgil and other poets, that had a connection with his subject; so that we are not to wonder that he shewed such variety in his thoughts, such richness of invention, so much erudition, and neatness in his allegorical paintings, or that he developed his subjects so well, not permitting any thing to enter into them but what was proper, and particularly belonging to them. From whence it arose, that having a perfect knowledge of the action he designed to represent, he entered the more into the spirit of it, and gave it a greater degree of animation, but always confined himself within the bounds of nature.

He seldom visited his friends, but gave those who came to see him so cordial a reception, that of all the curious persons, and men of letters, there was not any foreigner who passed through the city of Antwerp, of whatever quality, that did not go to visit him, as much on his own account, as to see his cabinet, which was one of the most curious in Europe. Prince Sigismund, of Poland, among others, and the infantia Isabella, did him that honour in returning from the siege of Breda.

If he made but few visits, he had his reasons for it; but he never refused to go to see the work of any painter who asked him, to whom he gave his opinion with the goodness of a father, always taking the trouble to retouch their works.

He never found fault with any work, but always pointed out the beauties. Although he had designed and copied many things in Italy and elsewhere, and though he had a great collection of fine prints and medals, he constantly employed some young artists at Rome, and in Lombardy, to design for him whatever was worthy notice, and which he afterwards made use of, to excite him and warm his genius.

The many parts of this beautifully drawn character, remind one of the late Sir Joshua Reynolds, who (of all

all the painters of our times) most resembled the illustrious Rubens in his manners, in his knowledge, in his colouring, and in his *chiaro oscuro*. The work of Rubens that Sir Joshua esteemed the most for its colouring, was the picture over the altar in his family chapel at Antwerp. Sir Joshua supposed, that the grandest composition the whole art of painting had ever produced, was the fall of the damned, in the Dusseldorf collection. He used publicly enough to compare a splendidly coloured picture of Rubens to a well-made nosegay of flowers, in which, though the colours are extremely shining and vivid, they do not affect the eye with glare and want of harmony. Rubens wrote a little book in Latin, on the use of the imitation of the Antwerp statues, by a painter. It is in manuscript, an dis entitled, *De Imitatione Statuorum*. So different is theory from practice, and so easy it is to give to others that good advice, of which one's self stands in need, that Rubens (who himself was so wretched an imitator of the grace and grandeur of the antique, that in one of his celebrated pictures, in the Luxemburg gallery, the Apollo Belvidere is quite made a Flemish porter) says in his little treatise, "Ea quis quis sapienti discretione seperaverit Statuos comentus amplectetur. He says, that the forms of the bodies of the ancients were more graceful, and more strongly furnished than ours, and gives as a reason for it, our indolent and unexercised way of life. Rubens thought his last picture (the crucifixion of St. Peter at Cologne) his best picture. The celebrated picture of the taking down from the cross, at Antwerp, was copied most exactly, in every part of its composition, from an old print. In that part of the art it is perhaps unrivalled.

REMBRANT,

Was most assuredly a great colourist, and a great master of life

and shade. His pictures wore an aspect, that those of no other masters possess. He was no studier of the graceful forms of the antique, but took nature as she presented herself to him. Some one asked him one day where his models after the antique were. "There," said Rembrant, opening a large closet, and pointing to some rich muffs, and some brocaded stuffs; "there," said he, "are my antiques."

Abbé VERTOT.

What little reliance can we have upon the truth of history, when the following anecdote is told of this agreeable and illuminous historian.

"M. de Vertot etrit peu scrupuleux de la verité des circonstances quand les fictions pouvoient contribuer a l'agreement de son style. On lui avoit promis des memoirs sur une siege qu'il avoit a descrire. On tarde a les lui envoier. Je n'en ai plus besoin, dit il quand on les lui apporta. *Mon siege est fait.*"—"M. de Vertot was but little scrupulous as to the truth of circumstance, when fiction could contribute to the elegance of his style. He had been promised some memoirs of a siege which he wanted to describe. They delayed sending it, and when it was brought to him, he replied, *I have no occasion for it. My siege is complete.*"

TABLEAU HISTORIQUE.

Charles the Fifth used to call Sleiden's history, son menteur, yet the Duc d'Evernon was quite astonished at the general truth of Davila's history of the civil wars of France, in which himself had been concerned as a very principal actor.

BAYLE.

Some one said well of this learned and ingenious writer, "Il est ancien general des philosophes, mais qu'il ne donne point ses conclusions."—"He is an old chief of the philosophers, but he never draws any conclusion." Cardinal de Polignac

Ligrac asked Bayle of what religious sect he was. Bayle replied, "Je suis Protestant, parce que je proteste contre tout ce qui se dit & se fait."—"I am a Protestant, for I protest against all that has been either said or done."

Saurin, the famous French protestant preacher's character of this very extraordinary man is very freely drawn.

He was one of those extraordinary men, who although possessed of the most wonderful penetration, could not be reconciled to himself, and whose opposite qualities leave us in suspense, whether we ought to place him at one extremity or at its opposite. On one hand, he was a great philosopher, capable of separating the true from the false, and of perceiving the chain of a principle, and pursuing it to its consequence. On the other hand, a great sophist, endeavouring to confound the false with the true, to distort a principle, and to overthrow a conclusion. On another hand, full of erudition and information; having read all that could be read, and retained all that was worth retaining, yet ignorant, or at least feigning to be ignorant, of the most common occurrences of life; advancing difficulties which have been a thousand times refuted, and proposing objections, which the merest novice of the schools would have blushed at. Sometimes attacking the greatest men, opening a vast field for their labours, and conducting them by different routs and thorny paths, and sometimes confounding them, or at least putting them to a great deal of trouble to overcome them. At other times assisting men of the most inferior abilities, bestowing praises on them, and tainting his writings with flatteries, which the learned would scarcely mention. Sometimes, to appearance at least, devoid of every passion that could militate against the principles of the gospel, chaste in his manners, grave in his dis-

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course, sober in his diet, austere in his manner of living. At other times employing the whole force of his genius to attack good morals, to assault chastity, modesty, and all the Christian virtues. Now appealing to the tribunal of the most rigid orthodoxy, reverting to the purest sources, and borrowing arguments from the most approved doctors; then following the route of the heretics, calling in the objections of the old herefiars, lending them new arms, and uniting the errors of the present age with those of the past. *Saurin on the Connexion of Religion and Policy.*

Bayle had changed his religion, I believe, three times before he was twenty-one years of age. His familiar letters are written with the greatest simplicity of style and of manner, and he appears to have had that regard to the well being of his family, which every kind-hearted man could have. The parliament of Thoulouse did themselves and M. Bayle honour in establishing the validity of his will, which, according to the laws of France in his time, as a refugee, he had not the power of making. Perhaps no person of our times more resembled M. Bayle, in his accuracy, subtlety, and sophistry, than the late Mr. Dunning, Lord Ashburton.

Father HARDOUIN,

Attempted to prove with great force of erudition, that all the Latin classical authors, except Pliny, (of whom he published an edition) were forgeries. A friend of his told him one day, that most people wondered at his extravagant and absurd speculation—"Why," replied he, "do you think I could have risen at three o'clock every morning of my life, to have said merely what others have said before me."

SALMASIUS,

Milton's adversary, was called in French, Monsieur de Saumaïe.

The last time, says the *Melanges Historiques*,

Y

Historiques et Politiques de M. Richault, 1770, that M. de Saumaize was in Burgundy, he said, (speaking of the troubles of England) that he was of the sentiment of the Presbyterians. "Qui regem non ejectionem aut interfectionem sed in ordinem redactum et intra certos limites regnantem, volebant?"

Of the study of the sciences he observed, that there were certain books which must be read, and read again continually; others to be read once or twice, and others, of which it would be sufficient to read

some places—*Consulendi solum per indices*; and, lastly, some of which it was sufficient to know their title and subject, to be able to consult them when necessary.

He had a design to write a book on the names of families now existing, most of which, he said, had been Christian names, as Peter, Perrin, &c.; others, the names of countries, as Champagne, Picardy, &c.; others, names of trades, as merchants, tailors, &c.; others, nick-names, and some names of estates.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE ANCIENTS RESPECTING ELECTRICITY.

BY WILLIAM FALCONER, M.D. F.R.S.

FROM THE MEMOIRS OF THE LITERARY AND PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY
AT MANCHESTER.

IT is, I believe, generally allowed, that electricity, considered as a principle, or quality, pervading all nature, was unknown to the philosophers of antiquity. It is, however, admitted, that some of its effects were observed by them, but their observations led them to believe, that it was a peculiar property of certain bodies only, and not that it was, as it now appears to be, one of the most general and active agents in the natural system. Theophrastus is, as far as I know, the first writer that has remarked the attractive power of bodies to one another, distinct from the attractions of gravity and magnetism. He speaks in his treatise on stones, of "amber dug on the coast of Liguria, which had an attractive power. He intimates, that the clearest had this property in the highest degree, and that it would attract iron." The same writer ascribes similar properties to the lapis lynceus, which is now believed to be the tourmalin, though it was formerly esteemed to be the same with amber. Theophrastus, however, clearly distinguishes them from one another, though he

ascribes the same attractive properties to both. "It possesses," he says, "an attractive power like amber; and, as they say, attracts not only straws, and leaves, but copper also, and iron, if in small particles."

Pliny gives a similar account. "Amber," says he, "being rubbed with the fingers, and having thereby become warmed, attracts to itself straws and dried leaves, in the same manner as the magnet does iron." He ascribes the same properties to the lapis lynceus. Solinus, Priscian, and, I believe, many other writers have noticed the same quality of that stone.

But the attractive power which electricity imparts to bodies, is not the only property of that fluid that was known to the ancients. They were acquainted with the effects of the electric shock; and have minutely described the sensations occasioned thereby, upon the human body. I do not however mean to insinuate, that they apprehended any connection to subsist between the attractive power just spoken of, and that which I am
about

about to mention. It is now proved, beyond a doubt, that the benumbing power, which is found in the torpedo, and several other fishes, is, in reality, produced by the electric stroke, which they have a power of imparting to any object they please, with which they come in contact; and is indeed the method they have both of defending themselves, and providing food. Aristotle says, that the torpedo "causes, or produces a torpidity upon those fishes it is about to seize, and having by that means got them into its mouth, feeds upon them." He adds, "that this fish hides itself in the sand and mud, and catches those fish that swim over it, by benumbing them; of which," he says, "some have been eye-witnesses. The same fish has also the power of benumbing men." Pliny says, "that this fish has the power of communicating its benumbing quality, if touched with a spear, or rod; and is able to impart a torpor over the strongest muscles of the body; and, as it were, binds and stops the feet even of the swiftest persons." Galen says, "that the torpedo is endued with such a power, that if it be touched by the fisherman with his eel spear, it instantly stupifies the hand, transmitting this power through the spear, to the hand." Plutarch says, "that it affects the fisherman through the drag-net; and, that if any person pours water on a living torpedo, the sensation will be conveyed through the water to the hand."

Oppian has gone still farther, and has discovered the organs by which this fish is enabled to produce this extraordinary effect, which he ascribes to "two organs of a radiated texture, which are fixed, or grow on each side of the fish." Claudian has written a short poem on the torpedo, but he mentions no qualities of it different from those which have been recited above, save

that it can convey its influence from the hook, with which it is caught, to the hand of the fisherman. From the above accounts we see, that the philosophers of antiquity had accurately observed the nature of this extraordinary influence, though they knew not to what general principle it ought to be ascribed. They noticed the sensation, and its effects on the body, the use the fish makes of this property for its defence and support, and that the fish had the power of conveying it through wood, metals, hemp or flax, and even through water; and lastly, that this extraordinary power was lodged in organs peculiar to the fish, a fact which the late accounts of the dissection of the electrical eel farther confirm. It is remarkable, that Pliny ascribes this power of the fish to a certain invisible agency, and calls it by the same name that has been applied by later writers to denominate the electrical influence.

It is farther worthy of remark, that the electrical shock, imparted by means of the living torpedo, was used in medicine. Vossius mentions, from some ancient authority, that an inveterate head-ach was cured by the application of a living torpedo to the part where the pain was seated. The same remedy was also in use for the gout; the patient being directed to place a living torpedo under his feet, as he stood on the sea shore, and to continue it until he found the numbness not only affect the whole of the foot, but the leg also, as far as the knee. This remedy is said to have cured Anthero, a freedman of Tiberius Cæsar.

Dioscorides advises the same remedy for inveterate pains of the head, and for protrusions of the rectum; and Galen seems to have copied him in recommending the same remedy for such complaints. The same application for the head-ach is to be found in Paulus Ægineta, and I believe, several other of the later writers on medicine. An ingenious and learned gentleman

suggested

suggested to me, that it was probable, that even the method of drawing down electrical fire from the clouds was known in very early times, and particularly to Numa Pompilius, the second king of Rome; and that his successor Tullus Hostilius, perished by his unskilful management of so dangerous a process.

Numa himself was, undoubtedly, a man of science. He rectified the calendar, and by intercalation brought the lunar and solar years to correspond. He was acquainted with the power of a concave speculum in concentrating the sun's rays, so as to inflame bodies; and it was in this way that the vestal fire was lighted. He instituted religious ceremonies, and formed a college of heralds, and was indeed their principal legislator, in what regarded religion and the laws of nations. Among other acts, Livy tells us, that he built an altar on the Aventine mount to Jupiter Elicius, whom, it was given out, that he had a power of drawing down from heaven, to explain what was portended by prodigies, and particularly by thunder and lightnings, and to advise with him on other important occasions. Arnobius, copying Plutarch, says, that Numa not being acquainted with the means of procuring thunder, which knowledge he was desirous to acquire, applied to the goddess Egeria, who taught him the method of drawing Jupiter down from heaven. Now we know, that in the Jewish religion, the visible appearance of the Deity was in the form of a flame of fire; witness the manifestation to Moses, in two instances, and the Shechinah of the temple. The same idea prevailed in the Pagan mythology; Jupiter, when he was obliged to come to Semele with the characteristic signs of his presence, came in this manner; to draw down thunder then, and to draw down the Deity, were, according to this acceptance, the same thing; and this Pliny testifies, as he says, from good

authority, had been often performed by Numa. Let us now examine the account of the death of Tullus Hostilius. Livy says of him, "that after examining the commentaries of Numa, and finding there a description of certain occult and solemn sacrifices, performed to Jupiter Elicius, he set himself to execute these in private; but from some impropriety in the commencement and conduct of these operations, he not only failed of being favoured with any intercourse with any celestial beings, but was, through the wrath of Jove, excited by his being importuned with such irregular rites and ceremonials, struck with lightning, and consumed, together with his palace."

Pliny's account agrees herewith. He says, that Tullus Hostilius, "whilst he was imitating in an irregular and improper manner the process of Numa, for drawing down lightning, was struck with a thunderbolt."

Dionysius Halicarnassensis agrees that he perished by fire, together with his family; but though he says, that many thought the burning of the palace was an artifice, to conceal the murder of the king and his family, yet himself inclines rather to the opinion that he died by lightning, on account of his improper conduct respecting the sacred rites. All agree that he perished in a storm, and during the performance of a private religious ceremony. Considering the intent of these rites, which were probably composed of some processes, which exhibited appearances of an electrical nature, it is, I think, at least probable, that he really lost his life by his unskilful management.

There is a remarkable passage in Lucan, relative to this subject. Aruns, a learned Etrurian, whom he had before described as skilled in the motions of lightning, is said, by him, to have collected the fires of lightning that were dispersed through the

the sky, and to have buried them in the earth. "What is this, but the description of the use of a conductor, to secure buildings from being struck by lightning?"

Let us now see if any probable conjecture may be formed, concerning the means or instruments which they employed in these operations. We know that the Etruscans and Sabines, Numa's countrymen, worshipped spears, and were, indeed, the inventors of those weapons. It is probable that they might not worship, or employ one spear only in such solemnities, but a number, perhaps a large case, or what Homer calls *Lourotheke*, or a kind of forest of spears. The first places of worship were in the open air, the word *templum* originally signifying the heaven, or sky. Besides, they were upon high places. The law was delivered to Moses upon Mount Sinai: and high places are mentioned often in the scriptures as the seats of idolatrous worship. Now, were a forest of spears, with the points upwards, and with the handles of dry wood, or, perhaps, some of the Teribinthinate kind, which are bad conductors, and placed upon an elevated situation, they might, if placed within striking distance, exhibit a luminous appearance, and in certain seasons collect electrical fire, sufficient to make a great discharge; and, as I suppose, to destroy any person within the reach of their influence. This is not altogether matter of conjecture. Plutarch says, that balls of fire were seen to rest on the points of the soldiers' spears, and we know, that in our own times, in the Mediterranean sea, it is common for balls of fire to rest on the rigging of the ships, which appearances were formerly called by the names of Castor and Pollux; and in later times, the fires of St. Helmo, and are thought to foretel good weather. Was it from this opinion, that St. Paul's ship, mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles, had the images of Castor and Pollux on its prow. Livy speaks

of a spear, in a house, that burned more than two hours, yet without being consumed. Could this be any thing but electrical?

It should be observed, that Numa did not build a temple, but an altar, in the open air, to Jupiter Elicius, and that it was situated on a hill, namely, the Aventine Mount. But Tullus Hostilius, it is said, was in some retired part of his house, and alone.

A spear, however, might become electrical in a thunder storm, in which Tullus Hostilius is said to have perished, even in a house; witness the story from Livy, mentioned above; but we may suppose, that he might be on the house-top, which was a common place of worship, and there have erected his apparatus for drawing down lightning. That this was a common place for idolatrous worship, we learn from the scriptures. The book of Kings speaks of the altars, that were on the top of the upper chamber of Ahaz. Jeremiah speaks of "the houses, upon whose roofs they have burned incense unto all the host of heaven, and have poured out drink-offerings to the gods." Zephaniah mentions those "that worship the host of heaven on the house tops." Might not then Tullus Hostilius, supposing him placed in an elevated situation, and upon the top of a building, and surrounded by, or in the neighbourhood of a number of spears, placed with their points upwards, receive a stroke by their means from an electrical atmosphere; or might not an electrical cloud be so attracted and discharged upon a multitude of metalline points, terminating in bad conductors, as to explode and destroy him, and burn the house: and might not Numa be instructed, how to conduct this process with greater safety, though, perhaps, not scientifically? But many a house is preserved by conductors, whose inhabitants, and even the artificers that erected them, are nearly ignorant of the rationale of the matter,

ON A REQUIRED MEASURE OF LIGHT.

THE improvements of philosophy have been principally made by the help of those instruments which measure the various quantities of natural bodies, and of their energies; and it is by means of those measuring instruments that the *advancements of science are rendered* useful and subservient to mankind. Thus we have the thermometer, the barometer, the hygrometer, for measuring the various degrees of heat, gravity of the atmosphere, moisture, &c. But there is one measure which is still a desideratum, though attempted by various ingenious persons, and which would evidently be of great use in philosophy. This is an instrument capable of measuring the various degrees of light; capable, for instance, of indicating how many times greater is the light of the sun in summer than in winter; of measuring the quantities of the sun's light at its different elevations above the horizon, and in different states of the atmosphere; capable of determining whether the light of a luminous body really decreases in exact proportion to the squares of the distances, which has been doubted by some eminent philosophers; and many other problems of the like nature.

In order to promote so useful an invention, we shall briefly mention those particulars which should be principally attended to in the investigation of such an instrument. This measure has been attempted three ways; namely—1. By means of plain reflectors properly inclined, and enclosed in a box so as to reflect a ray of light from one to the other, and lastly to the eye of the observer, in so weakened a state as to render it just visible. In this case the number of reflectors required to weaken, or nearly to annihilate, that ray of light, is the measure of its intensity. 2. By interposing a number of semitransparent mediums between the eye and a certain object. 3. By contracting or enlarging the aperture of a

telescope, till an object viewed through it might be just discerned. In this case, the different apertures required to render the same object just visible in different lights, are the measures of the intensities of those lights.—But the following particulars must be attentively considered, in order to judge of the merits of those contrivances, and to attempt to remedy their imperfections.

Plain mirrors reflect more or less, not only on account of their different polish, but also according to their different degrees of inclination. When the aperture of a telescope is much contracted, the distinctness of vision is destroyed.

The objection which militates against all the above-mentioned methods is, that the eye cannot judge, with any tolerable degree of accuracy, when a certain object seen through any medium is rendered just visible, or whether different objects seen at different times through any instrument, are brought to the same degree of perspicuity; because the same eye will sometimes plainly discern, and at other times not at all perceive, the very same object always equally illuminated.

To construct therefore an instrument capable of measuring the degrees of light, a standard or point of comparison must be first established, to which any other light may be compared. The different states of the eye in that case could not occasion any error. Thus suppose that a burning candle, or other luminous body, could give a light constantly equal, this light, by the interposition of proper mediums, might be rendered just visible; then both this, and the light transmitted through any of the above-mentioned instruments, might be brought near each other; and the observer, viewing both at the same time, might easily judge whether they were equal or not; and the instrument might be so adjusted, as to render them precisely equal. Perhaps the light of electric sparks may be found to answer this purpose.

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MEDITATIONS ON THE RUINS OF PALMIRÁ.

BY M. VOLNEY.

HERE, said I to myself, an opulent city once flourished; this was the seat of a powerful empire. Yes, these places, now so desert, a living multitude formerly animated, and an active croud circulated in the streets which at present are so solitary. Within those walls, where a mournful silence reigns, the noise of the arts and the shouts of joy and festivity continually resounded. These heaps of marble formed regular palaces, these prostrate pillars were the majestic ornaments of temples, these ruinous galleries present the outlines of public places. There a numerous people assembled for the respectable duties of its worship, or the anxious cares of its subsistence: there industry, the fruitful inventor of sources of enjoyment, collected together the riches of every climate, and the purple of Tyre was exchanged for the precious thread of Serica; the soft tissues of Cassimere for the sumptuous carpets of Lydia; the amber of the Baltic for the pearls and perfumes of Arabia; the gold of Ophir for the pewter of Thule.

And now a mournful skeleton is all that subsists of this opulent city, and nothing remains of its powerful government but a vain and obscure remembrance! To the tumultuous throng which crouded under these porticos, the solitude of death has succeeded. The silence of the tomb is substituted for the hum of public places. The opulence of a commercial city is changed into hideous poverty. The palaces of kings are become the receptacle of deer, and unclean reptiles inhabit the sanctuary of the gods.—What glory is here eclipsed, and how many labours are annihilated!—Thus perish the works of men, and thus do nations and empires vanish away!

The history of past times strongly

presented itself to my thoughts. I called to mind those distant ages when twenty celebrated nations inhabited the country round me. I pictured to myself the Assyrian on the banks of the Tygris, the Chaldean on those of the Euphrates, the Persian whose power extended from the Indus to the Mediterranean. I enumerated the kingdoms of Damascus and Idumea; of Jerusalem and Samaria; and the warlike states of the Philistines; and the commercial republics of Phenicia. This Syria, said I to myself, now almost depopulated, then contained a hundred flourishing cities, and abounded with towns, villages, and hamlets. Every where one might have seen cultivated fields, frequented roads, and crouded habitations. Ah! what are become of those ages of abundance and of life? What are become of so many productions of the hand of man? Where are those ramparts of Nineveh, those walls of Babylon, those palaces of Persepolis, those temples of Balbec and of Jerusalem? Where are those fleets of Tyre, those dock-yards of Arad, those work-shops of Sidon, and that multitude of mariners, pilots, merchants, and soldiers? Where those husbandmen, those harvests, that picture of animated nature of which the earth seemed proud? Alas! I have traversed this desolate country, I have visited the places that were the theatre of so much splendour, and I have beheld nothing but solitude and desertion! I looked for those ancient people and their works, and all I could find was a faint trace, like to what the foot of a passenger leaves on the sand. The temples are thrown down, the palaces demolished, the ports filled up, the towns destroyed, and the earth stript of inhabitants, seems a dreary burying-place—Great God! from whence proceed such melancholy

choly revolutions? For what cause is the fortune of these countries so strikingly changed? Why are so many cities destroyed? Why is not that ancient population reproduced and perpetuated?

Thus absorbed in contemplation, new ideas continually presented themselves to my thoughts. Every thing, continued I, misleads my judgment, and fills my heart with trouble and uncertainty. When these countries enjoyed what constitutes the glory and felicity of mankind, they were an unbelieving people who inhabited them: it was the Phenician, offering human sacrifices to Moloch, who brought together within his walls the riches of every climate; it was the Chaldean, prostrating himself before a serpent,* who subjugated opulent cities, and laid waste the palaces of kings and the temples of the gods; it was the Persian, the worshipper of fire, who collected the tributes of a hundred nations; they were the inhabitants of this very city, adorers of the sun and stars, who erected so many monuments of affluence and luxury. Numerous flocks, fertile fields, abundant harvests, every thing that should have been the reward of piety, was in the hands of idolaters: and now that a believing and holy people occupy the countries, nothing is to be seen but solitude and sterility. The earth under these blessed hands produces only briars and wormwood. Man sows in anguish, and reaps vexation and cares; war, famine, and pestilence, assault him in turn. Yet, are not these the children of the prophets? This Christian, this Mussulman, this Jew, are they not the elect of heaven, loaded with gifts and miracles? Why then is this race, beloved of the Divinity, deprived of the favours which were formerly showered upon the Heathen? Why do these lands, consecrated by the blood of the martyrs, no longer boast their

former temperature and fertility? Why have those favours been banished as it were, and transferred for so many ages to other nations and different climes?

And here, pursuing the course of vicissitudes which have in turn transmitted the sceptre of the world to people so various in manners and religion, from those of ancient Asia down to the more recent ones of Europe, my native country, designated by this name, was awakened in my mind, and turning my eyes towards it, all my thoughts fixed upon the situation in which I had left it.†

I recollected its fields so richly cultivated, its roads so admirably executed, its towns inhabited by an immense multitude, its ships scattered over every ocean, its ports filled with the produce of either India; and comparing the activity of its commerce, the extent of its navigation, the magnificence of its buildings, the arts and industry of its inhabitants, with all that Egypt and Syria could formerly boast of a similar nature, I pleased myself with the idea that I had found in modern Europe the past splendour of Asia: but the charm of my reverie was presently dissolved by the last step in the comparison. Reflecting that if the places before me had once exhibited this animated picture: who, said I to myself, can assure me that their present desolation will not one day be the lot of our own country? Who knows but that hereafter some traveller like myself will sit down upon the banks of the Seine, the Thames, or the Zuyder sea, where now, in the tumult of enjoyment, the heart and the eyes are too slow to take in the multitude of sensations; who knows but he will sit down solitary amid silent ruins, and weep a people inurned, and their greatness changed into an empty name?

Or

* The dragon Bel.

† In the year 1782, at the close of the American war.

OF THE ORIGIN OF SUBTERRANEAN FIRES.

BY R. WATSON, D.D. F.R.S.

THE most remarkable changes which have taken place in the form and constitution of the earth, since the deluge, have probably been produced by subterraneous fires; for it is to their agency that philosophers ascribe volcanoes and earthquakes; those tremendous instruments of nature, by which the convertis plains into mountains, the ocean into islands, and dry land into stagnant pools.

Dr. Hooke formerly had maintained, that all islands had been raised out of the sea by earthquakes; and modern philosophers seem to admit his hypothesis, though not, perhaps, in its utmost latitude. Thus one of them is of opinion, that Iceland, which is bigger than Ireland, has been produced by volcanoes in the course of several centuries.* Another, after giving an ingenious conjecture concerning the origin of all the tropical low isles in the South Sea, assures us, that of the higher isles there is hardly one of them which has not strong vestiges of its having undergone some violent alteration by a volcano. Some of them have volcanoes still subsisting; others, amongst which are Otaheite and Huaheine, seem to have been elevated, in remote ages, from the bottom of the sea by subterraneous fires.†

When these fires were first kindled; by what sort of fuel they are still maintained; at what depths below the surface of the earth they are placed; whether they have a mutual communication; of what dimensions they consist; and how long they may continue, are questions which do not admit an easy decision. The surface of the earth is admirably fitted

for the support of the existence and well-being of all the animals which inhabit it. God has given us the ability also to penetrate a very little below this surface; and as the reward of our industry, he has placed within our reach a great variety of useful minerals; but as to the central recesses of the globe, we can never penetrate into them. A gnat essaying the feeble efforts of its slender proboscis against the hide of an elephant, and attempting thereby to investigate the internal formation of the body of that huge animal; is no unapt representation of man attempting to explore the internal structure of the earth, by digging little holes upon its surface.

But though it will ever be impossible for us to search far into the bowels of the earth, or to imitate, in an extensive degree, the great operations which are constantly carrying on beneath its surface, yet it affords a curious mind no mean degree of satisfaction to be able, by obvious experiments, to form some reasonable conjectures concerning them.

Mr. Lemery,‡ as far as I have been able to learn, was the first person who illustrated, by actual experiment, the origin of subterraneous fires. He mixed twenty-five pounds of powdered sulphur with an equal weight of iron filings; and having kneaded the mixture together, by means of a little water, into the consistence of a paste, he put it into an iron pot, covered it with a cloth, and buried the whole a foot under ground. In about eight or nine hours time the earth swelled, grew warm, and cracked; hot sulphureous vapours were perceived; a flame which dilated

* See Letters on Iceland by Dr. Uno Von Troil, p. 222.

† Observations made during a voyage round the world, by Dr. Forster, p. 152; where the reader will find, in a note, a learned reference to the works of a great many authors, on the subject of isles raised out of the sea by the action of a subterraneous fire.

‡ Cours de Chimie, p. 376. & Mém. de l'Acad. des Scien. à Paris, An. 1700.

dilated the cracks was observed; the superincumbent earth was covered with a yellow and black powder: in short, a subterraneous fire, producing a volcano in miniature, was spontaneously lighted up from the reciprocal actions of sulphur, iron, and water.

That part of this experiment which relates to the production of fire, by the fermentation of iron filings and sulphur when made into a paste,* has been frequently repeated since the time of Mr. Lémery. I myself have made it more than once, but I have nothing material to add to his account, except that the flame, when the experiment is made in the open air, is of very short duration; and that the whole mass, after the extinction of the flame, continues at intervals, for a longer or shorter time, according to its quantity, to throw out sparks; and that a ladle full of the ignited mass, being dropped down from a considerable height, descends like a shower of red-hot ashes, much resembling the paintings of the eruptions of Mount Vesuvius, which may be seen at the British Museum. It has been observed, that large quantities of the materials are not requisite to make the experiment succeed, provided there be a due proportion of water: half a pound of steel filings, half a pound of flour of brimstone, and fourteen ounces of water, will, when well mixed, acquire heat enough to make the mass take fire.†

That heat and fire should be generated from the spontaneous actions of minerals upon each other, is a phenomenon by no means singular

in nature, how difficult soever it may be to account for it. The heat of putrescent dunghills, of the fermenting juices of vegetables, and, above all, the spontaneous firing of hay not properly dried, are obvious proofs that vegetables possess this property as well as minerals. In both vegetables and minerals, a definite quantity of moisture is requisite to enable them to commence that intestine motion of their parts, which is necessary for the production of fire. Iron and sulphur would remain mixed together for ages without taking fire, if they were either kept perfectly free from moisture, or drenched with too much water; and vegetables in like manner, which are quite dry, or exceedingly wet, are incapable of taking fire whilst they continue in that state.‡

But though it is certain, from the experiment, that mixtures of iron and sulphur, when moistened with a proper quantity of water, will spontaneously take fire; yet the origin of subterraneous fires cannot, with any great degree of probability, be referred to the same principle, unless it can be shewn that nature has combined together in large quantities iron and sulphur, and distributed the composition through various internal parts of the earth.

Now that this is really the case, we can have no doubt. There is, perhaps, no mineral more commonly met with, than that which is composed of iron and sulphur. It is found not only upon the surface of the earth, but at the greatest depths below it, to which mines have been hitherto driven; not only in England or Italy, Europe or Asia, but

* The words *ferment* and *fermentation* may perhaps be improperly applied to the spontaneous transposition of parts, which takes place in mineral substances; but the reader cannot fail to understand what is meant by them when thus applied.

† Sage Miner. Vol. I. p. 42.

‡ Animal substances, when laid on heaps, have been observed to take fire. "M. Montet rapporte dans l'histoire de l'Académie Royale des Sciences, année 1776, que des petites étoffes appellées *imperiales*, gardées en tas, prirent feu d'elles-mêmes. Instruc. sur l'usage de la Houille par M. Venel." It is not improbable that filings of copper and other metals, when mixed in a due proportion with sulphur and water, would acquire a heat, and perhaps take fire, especially if the quantities were large; but experiments of this kind have not hitherto been made.

in all parts of the world. This mineral is called, in some parts of England, copperas-stone; in others, brazil; in others, brass-lumps; in others, rust-balls; in others, horse-gold; in others, marcasite; though naturalists are now, I think, agreed to give that name to such mineral bodies as are angular and crystallized, especially into a cubical form. The scientific name is *pyrites*—fiery; a denomination expressive enough of the property which this mineral has of striking fire with steel, and of spontaneously taking fire, when laid in heaps, and moistened with water.

Sulphur and iron are the chief constituent parts of the pyrites; arsenic, however, is sometimes united with the iron instead of sulphur, and sometimes sulphur and arsenic are both of them combined with iron. The pyrites also, accidentally, contains copper, silver, and perhaps gold: hence the pyrites has been distinguished by mineralogists into various sorts, by attending, either to its internal constitution, as the iron, the copper, the sulphureous, the arsenical pyrites; or to its external figure, as the pyramidal, the cubical, the spherical, the prismatic pyrites; or to its colour, as the grey, white, yellowish, yellow, orange pyrites.*

Though the reader may have never contemplated the various species of the pyrites in any cabinet of natural history, or taken notice of such kinds as are commonly to be met with in chalk-pits, in beds of clay, or upon the sea-shore in many places of England, yet the yellowish matter, often adhering to or mixed with the substance of pit-coal, cannot, surely, have escaped his observation: that matter consists of sulphur and iron, and is a species of the pyrites. So much of this sort of the pyrites is dug up together with the coal, at

Whitehaven, Newcastle, and other places, that people are employed to pick it out from amongst the coal, lest it should vitiate its quality, and render it less saleable. The pieces of the pyrites which are separated from the coal, are not thrown aside as useless, but laid in heaps, for a purpose to be mentioned hereafter; and these heaps, not many years since, took fire both at Whitehaven and in the neighbourhood of Halifax. The same accident was observed above a hundred years ago at Puddle Wharf in London, where heaps of coal which contained much of this pyrites took fire.†

Though Lemery was the first person who, by artificial mixtures of sulphur and iron, produced fire, yet that natural mixtures of these substances would spontaneously take fire, was known before he made his experiment. Thus, to omit what is said by Pliny and the ancients, we are told by good authority, that one Willson at Ealand in Yorkshire, about the year 1664 or before, had piled up in a barn many cart-loads of the pyrites, or brass-lumps, as they were called by the colliers, for some secret purposes of his own: the roof of the barn happening to be bad, the pyrites were wetted by the rain; in this state they began to smoke, and presently took fire, and burned like red hot coals.‡

We have an account in the Philosophical Transactions for 1693, § of a covetous master of a copperas work at Whitstable, in Kent, who, in order to break his neighbour's work, had engrossed all the pyrites or copperas-stone in the country: he built a shed over two or three hundred tons of these stones, to keep off the rain. In the space, however, of six or seven months, the mass (being probably wetted by the moisture of

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* Whoever wishes to become fully acquainted with the natural history of the pyrites, may consult the *Pyritologia* of Henckel, where he will find the origin, nature, and uses of this mineral investigated with the greatest learning and ingenuity.

† Jorden of Miner. Wat. C. xiv.

‡ Power's Microsc. Obser. p. 62.

§ No. 213.

the atmosphere, or by the rain, which, notwithstanding the shed, might have fallen upon it) took fire and burned for a week; it quite destroyed his shed, and disappointed all his hopes of profit: for the pyrites was in part converted into a substance like melted metal, and in part it looked like red-hot stones: all the sulphur was consumed, and the neighbourhood was miserably afflicted by the noxious exhalations which it sent forth.

In the month of August, 1751, the Cliffs near Charmouth, in Dorsetshire, took fire, in consequence of a heavy fall of rain after a hot and dry season, and they continued at intervals to emit flame for several years. These cliffs consist of a dark-coloured bituminous loam, in which are imbedded large quantities of different kinds of the pyrites. The same kind of flame has been frequently observed in the Cornish mines, and this mineral fire sometimes leads to the discovery of a mine; but wherever it is found to exist, the iron pyrites is generally discovered near it.*

There are some sorts of earth from which alum is made, which abound so much with the pyrites, that the proprietors of the works are forced to keep them constantly well watered, in order to prevent their taking fire.† But it would be useless to pursue this subject further; we have adduced proof sufficient, that nature furnishes materials, which under certain circumstances, may become the occasion of subterraneous fires. The requisite circumstances are a proper quantity of the materials, a proper portion of water to moisten them, and perhaps a communication with the air may be necessary. A small quantity of the pyrites is sufficient to kindle a fire;

water is almost every where found in such great plenty below the surface of the earth, that it constitutes one of the greatest impediments to our sinking pits to any great depth; and air, if it should be thought absolutely necessary to the spontaneous firing of the pyrites, may be conceived either to accompany the water in its dripping, or to descend into the innermost parts of the earth through the fissures which are found upon its surface. When a subterraneous fire is once kindled, it may be supported for ages by other substances, as well as by those which first gave rise to it: thus if a quantity of the pyrites should take fire in a stratum of coal, or of shale, or of any other substance strongly impregnated with bitumen, the fire might continue till the stratum was consumed.‡

There are such a great number of volcanoes now subsisting in every quarter of the globe, and so many unequivocal vestiges of others, which in length of time have become extinct, that some philosophers think they have reason on their side in supposing either, that the earth, at some considerable distance below its surface, is surrounded with a stratum of ignited matter of a definite thickness; or that the whole central part of it is nothing but a mass of melted minerals, which every where struggling for vent, bursts forth where there is the least resistance, shivering into rude fragments the superincumbent crust of earth, and deluging with mountainous torrents of liquid fire the adjoining countries.

We do not know of what kind of materials the inward part of the earth is composed; the water, coal, earth, stones, metals, met with upon its surface, have, bulk for bulk,
very

* *Philos. Transf. Vol. LII. p. 119.*

† *Waller. Min. Vol. I. p. 25.* — *Stenckel Pyritol. p. 312.* — *Minera. par M. Val. de Pomare, Vol. I. p. 296.*

‡ There are some coaleries on fire now in Scotland, which were on fire in the time of *Agricola*. *Pennant's Tour in Scot. Part II. p. 201.* See an account of the coaleries on fire in Staffordshire, in *Dr. Plott's Nat. Hist. of that county*; and of the substances sublimed from the burning coal-pits at Newcastle in *Philos. Transf. for 1676.*

very different weights; and a similar inequality of similar materials, may take place at all depths below the surface. It has been gathered, however, from very ingenious observations and calculations, upon the attraction of the hill Scheshallein in Scotland, that the mean density of the whole earth is about four times and a half the density of water, the mean density of stones, suppose Portland stone, being two times and a half the density of water.* Hence if this globe of earth could be weighed in a scale, it would require two equal globes and a half of Portland stone, or four equal globes and a half of water to balance it. The whole earth being so much heavier, bulk for bulk, than the general matter near its surface, it has been conjectured, that there must be somewhere within the earth, towards the more central parts, great quantities of metals, or such like dense matter, to counterbalance the lightness of the superficial materials, so as to make up the whole weight of the earth. Supposing the diameter of the earth to be 7920 miles, and that it was composed of an inward globe 5110 miles in diameter, and of an outward spherical shell 1405 miles in thickness, the matter of the inward globe being as heavy nearly as melted silver, and the matter of the outward crust being as heavy, at a medium, as Portland stone; then

would the weight of such an inward globe, and such an outward shell or crust, be together equal to the present weight of the whole earth. But considering the great compressibility of water, and of the stones and earth met with upon the surface of the globe, it is probable, that in descending towards its center, the parts may be so condensed as to make the weight of the earth what it is, without supposing its central parts to be composed of materials different from its superficial parts.†

But to return to our experiment. I need use no argument to prove that either the sulphur, or the iron, or both, have undergone a great change during their fermentation: we can have no difficulty in thinking that the sulphureous steams, heat, flame, and fire, which attended the mutual action of sulphur and iron upon each other, could not have been produced without the bodies themselves having suffered some change: this change is visible from inspecting the mixture before and after its fermentation; from a greyish colour it will be turned wholly black, or of a deep red; it will be rendered more manifest by tasting it: neither sulphur nor iron have any taste, nor has the mixture of the two any taste before its fermentation; but after that is finished, it has a very saline taste.

TWO CURIOUS ACCOUNTS OF THE ZIRCHNITZER SEA, A LAKE IN CARNIOLA.

FROM THE PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS.

I. HAVING crossed the river Dravus, and passed Mount Luibel, in the Carnick Alps, by that noble passage cut through the rocks, and vaulted like that of Paulilyppe, near Naples, I went to Brounizza, two leagues from whence, and beyond the hills, is the Zirchnitzer

Sea, receiving that name from Zirchnitz, a town of about 300 houses.

This lake is near two German miles long, and one broad. On the south side thereof lies a great forest, and on the north side the country is flat; but the whole valley is encompassed with high hills, at some little distance

* Philos. Transf. 1778, p. 784.

† See Mr. Mitchell's very ingenious Essay on Earthquakes.

distance from it. But I saw no snow upon them, though upon other mountains in the country, I observed snow in June. Upon hills on the side of great lakes, the snow lies not so long as upon hills more distant.

This lake is well filled with water for the greatest part of the year, but in the month of June it sinketh under ground, not only by percolation, or falling through the pores of the earth, but retireth under ground through many great holes at the bottom of it; the little, if any, that remains in the hilly or rocky part is evaporated; and in the month of September it returns by the same, and in a short time covers the tract of earth again, but I cannot determine the space of time to a day.— This return and ascent is so speedy, and it mounts at the holes with such violence, that it springs out of the ground to the height of a pike. The water that spouts seems somewhat clear in the air, but being spread about, looks as formerly in the lake.

The holes generally are stony, not in soft or loose earth; yet in one or two places the earth hath been known to sink, and fall in, particularly near a village called Sea-dorf. They are of different largeness and figure; some perpendicular at the beginning, and then oblique; others oblique at first, scarce two exactly alike. Such holes I have seen in other parts of Carniola, and in other countries also. We have a hole called Elden Hole, not made by art, but naturally, in the mountains in the peak country of Derbyshire, above eighty fathoms deep. The great holes are the same every year, but possibly part of the water may sometimes find or make new passages through the crevices and crumbly parts of the field.

When the water goeth first away, they see it in these holes for a while, but afterwards it descends lower out of their sight.

This piece of ground, in the time of the retirement and absence of the water, is not unfruitful, but by a

speedy and plentiful production of grass, yieldeth not only a present sustenance for the beasts of the field, but a good provision of hay for the cattle in winter.

The lake is not only thus filled with water, but every year well stored with fish. Upon the retiring of the water all have liberty to fish; and the fishermen standing up to the waist at the holes before-mentioned, intercept the passage of the fish, and take a very great number of them, which otherwise would be secure for some months under the earth, and not fail to return in September. But at that time the prince will not permit them to make any such attempt.

The fish of this lake have a closer habitation than those of any other I know; for they pass some months under the earth, and a good part of the winter under ice. I could not learn that there were any otters in this lake, which otherwise must probably have taken the same course with the fish, not that there were any remarkable extraneous substances, any vegetables, or unknown fishes brought up by the water, but those which come up are of the same kind with those which descend.

The bottom of the lake is not even, nor near about the same depth, but sometimes two feet, and then suddenly twenty yards deep. And because the fish haunt the deep places more than the shallows, they have given names to the seven chiefest cavities or valleys in the lake.

The water is not always at the same height, but somewhat differing according unto rains, snows, or drought; and they are sensible of its heights by the tops of the hills in it, and its spreading towards Zirchnitz, but it alters not very much till it begins to go away.

No river enters it, but only inconsiderable rivulets on the south and east side; nor hath it any other discharge known, but by the holes.

There are also divers caverns and deep places in the country of Carniola, even where there is no water.

Be-

Between Sea-dorf and Nider-dorf, the ground sometimes sinks in several places upon the sudden retiring of the lake; and the aforefaid prince of Eckenberg was once so curious, as to descend into one hole, through which he passed under a hill, and came out on the other side; as I was informed by M. Andreas Wifer, the then judge of Zirchnitz, and also by Johannes Wifer, who had formerly held the same place.

The country is high about the lake, but the lake is not high in respect of the country near it, but low.

The snow falls not till after the lake is returned.

This lake probably may hold dependance of, and communication with some subterraneous great lake, or magazine of water belonging to these hilly regions, which when full, and running over, may vent itself with force and plenty into this field, and when scant of water, absorb and drink in the same again; the water of the lake returning but from whence it came, having no river running out of it whereby to be discharged.

I went also to a noted stone, commonly called the Fishers - stone, which hath somewhat of the use of the Nilecope-pillar at Grand Cairo. It is a large stone upon one of the hills, or elevated parts of the field, which whensoever it appears above water, the fishermen being upon the lake, take notice of it, and know thereby, that in a few days the water will retire under ground. For after the filling of the lake in September, the water never decreaseth so low again, as to let the Fisherstone appear, till it begins to retire under ground.

II. This lake was by the ancients called Lugea Palus, by the moderns, Lacus Lugeus, though at present its Latin name be Lacus Cirknicensis, in High-Dutch, Zirchnisersee, and in our Carniolan tongue, Zirknisco Jesero. Why it was so called of old, is unknown, or very uncertain, but the original of the present name

is more sure, it being derived from the adjacent town of Cirknitz; and that it had its name from a chapel of the Virgin Mary, which at first stood alone, but now the town is built round it. This chapel was no great edifice at first, and therefore was called the Little Chapel, which in the language of the country is Zirkvisa; whence the lake was named Zirkvisco Jesero, or the Chapel-Lake, but now by abuse, *v* being changed into *n*, Zirknisco Jesero.

It is distant from the capital city of the province Labac six German miles; it is a good German mile long, or better than 4000 geometrical paces, and is about half as much in breadth. Its ordinary depth is ten cubits, its least five or six, rarely three, but its greatest is sixteen cubits. It is every where surrounded with woody mountains, which on the south and west side are very high, and three miles broad, running far in length into the Turkish country, and afford nothing but horrid stony deserts, overgrown with trees. On the north and east side, there is between the mountains and the lake, a small territory, which though narrow, is nevertheless pleasant, and is inhabited by one town, three castles, and nine villages, and adorned with twenty churches.

In the mountain called Javornik, standing near the lake, there are two holes, or exceeding deep precipices, in which many thousand wild pigeons roost all the winter; entering in Autumn, and coming out with the first of the Spring: what they live upon in these caverns is unknown, but I take it to be the nitrous sand. In another hole called Slivenza, it is the belief of the country people that the witches hold their assemblies, because that several times lights like *ignes fatui* are observed there. On the top of this hill is a hole of an unknown depth, out of which there often breathe out noxious steams, supposed to occasion tempests of thunder, lightning, and hail; and for this reason the priest

of

of Zirknitz, every Whitson-Monday, goes to the hole in procession, and uses over it a certain form of exorcism.

There run into this lake continually eight rivulets. The two least are called Bellebréch and Trefenz; the third is the fountain Oberch, out of which abundance of water gushes with great force; the fourth, fifth, and sixth, called Steberziza, Linlinziza, and Seromfchiza, may for their bigness deserve the name of rivers; the seventh, Martinfchiza, breaks out at a cleft in the rock; the last, called Cirknizer-bach, is a pretty large river.

Now this lake being every where surrounded with mountains, and no where running over, nature has given it two visible channels, or stony caverns, called Velka Karlouza and Mala Karlouza, by which the water runs under the mountain; and a third concealed subterraneous passage, which without doubt communicates with the other two under ground, as I shall hereafter prove. These having run half a German mile, come out at the other side of the mountain, near the chapel of St. Cantian, in a desert place, at a stony cave, and become the river called by the inhabitants Jefero, that is, the lake. This river Jefero is reasonably big, and having run half a quarter of a mile, enters a wide stony cavern, running slowly under the hill for the space of a good musket-shot; then coming out again on the other side, after it has run through a small plat, it enters a third cavern or grotto, where having passed fifty paces, one may say, *Siste viator, ne plus ultra*, for it runs no longer peaceably as before, but with great noise and roaring falls down a very much inclined channel of stone, so that neither I nor any else durst follow it farther. In June, 1678, I went myself in a small fisher-boat under the mountain, through the cave, and entered the grotto, till I came to the aforesaid falls, without any danger or trouble, the passage being wide enough.

It must be noted, that the valley wherein this river Jefero runs, is exceeding steep, but the plat of ground is plain and stony, of an oval form, and is surrounded with (as it were) a very high rampart, so steep, that it would be impossible for a cat to climb out of it, unless at one place, whereat a man may make a shift to go up and down, though not without peril of his life; the way being in some places not above three or four inches, and no where above six inches wide. In the year 1684, I went down here in company with a French gentleman, but the water being up, and we wanting a boat, we could not go under the hill, nor enter the grotto; so we returned, and with great difficulty descended by a steep and narrow passage, and came to a cave bigger than any church, through which the river Jefero runs. Here we found several figures of stone, the workmanship of nature, and strange holes and caverns in the earth; but by reason the river was then up, we could go no farther. At other times, when the water is down, one may go with lighted torches a great way under ground; and it is said there are here very odd figures formed by the petrified water: among the rest, one resembling a weaver at work, of which the country people want not their superstitious traditions.

But to return to our lake; I say that about the feast of St. James's-Tide, and sometimes not till August, the water runs away, and it is dry: but it fills again, and most commonly in October or November, yet so as not to observe any certain time: for sometimes it has been dry twice or thrice in a year: as in the year 1685, it was dry in January. Again the water began to draw off, on the 15th of August, St. N. and it was quite clear by the 8th of September; and this present year, 1687, it has been thrice empty, which makes the fishing very poor and inconsiderable. Sometimes again,

again, though but seldom, it has happened to be three or four years together full of water, and then is the best of the fishing. But it never yet was observed that this lake was dry for a whole year together.

The right of fishing in this lake, upon certain terms agreed on, does at this time belong to the lordships or castles following—1. to Haafsperg, 2. Steegberg, 3. Laas, 4. Schneeberg, 5. Avespurg, 6. to Sitticium, which is a monastery of Cistercian monks.

There are three islands in this lake, viz. Mala-Goriza and Velka Goriza, which are uninhabited. The third is a very pretty island, called Vornek, that is, reasonably big, having upon it a village of four houses, called Ottock: above this town, upon a little eminence, stands a church, which is no small ornament. Those that live on it have fields, meadows, pastures, wood, gardens, and orchards, and all things necessary for life.

There is also a very fine peninsula all covered with wood, called Dorvasek. When the lake is up, and one comes in a boat between

the island of Vornek and this peninsula, the farther part of the lake, lying under the mountain, very well resembles a curious port for shipping. At the further end, when the water draws off, there appear rows of stakes, a sign that there hath been formerly a bridge, and therefore it is at this day called the Old Bridge.

In this lake there are many pits, in the shape of basons or cauldrons, which are not all of the same depth or breadth; the breadth of them being from twenty to sixty cubits, more or less, and the depth from eight to twenty cubits. In the bottom of the pits are several holes, at which the water and fishes enter, when the lake ebbs away.

The principal pits in which they fish, are eighteen. They are called, Maljoberch, Velkjoberch, Kamine, Sueiufkajamma, Vodonos, Loureitichka, Kraloudour, Rescheto, Ribeskajamma, Rethje, Sittarza, Lipanza, Gebno, Koteu, Ainz, Zelenza, Pounigk, and Levilhe. Besides these there are several other lesser pits of no note, because there is no such fishing in them as in those but now mentioned.

[*To be continued.*]

AN HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATE OF THE ENGLISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

(*Continued from Page 108.*)

WE must now take a view of affairs in other parts of India. Offers of peace were made to the Mahrattas, on condition that they should unite with the English against Hyder; and the English would, on that condition, relinquish every conquest, except Amadabad and Gualor. The Pashwah hesitating to give an answer, the British army assembled near Bassein, and advanced towards Poonah, the capital of the Mahratta government. The Mahrattas had a strong army in Concar ready to dispute the pas-

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sage of the Gauts; but this army ascended the Gauts, and there being reinforced, waited the approach of the English army. General Goddard determined to dislodge them, which he effected, and took post at the head of the Gauts. Advice being received that the governments of Madras were in great distress, the garrison of Tellichery, being troops belonging to that presidency, were relieved and sent round. To effect this relief, General Goddard was obliged again to descend the Gauts, in which he was

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greatly

greatly molested by the enemy. Goddard failed to Surat, and thence to Bombay.

Major Abington, who took the command at Tellichery, found the place in a bad state of defence; he proceeded immediately to repair the lines, although much annoyed by the enemy, who cannonaded the place, and run mines under the works; but they were happily counteracted in all their attempts. Major Abington received instructions to quit the place and retreat; but against this he remonstrated with such effect, that a reinforcement was sent to him. He then determined on a sally, which was executed with spirit and success; the enemy were surprised, their General, their guns, seven elephants, and two thousand men, were taken. The consequence of this success was the restoration of the princes, friends to the English on that coast. Major Abington now proceeded to act on the offensive; he marched against and took Calicut; immediately after which Colonel Humberstone arrived with reinforcements.

The fleet which conveyed these troops from Europe joined Sir Edward Hughes in very good time; for within less than a month an action took place, Feb. 15, 1782, and another on the 17th, in which nothing decisive happened. Suffrein failed for the neighbourhood of Porto Nova, and having landed some troops, took Cuddalore. Another action took place on the 12th of April, when the fleets were parted by the night.

On the 17th of the same month, the English army on the Coromandel coast began to act, and advanced to Wandewash. Hyder lay encamped near Permacore. After some movements, Hyder attacked the English, but was obliged to leave them masters of the field. He however cut off a guard of horse, and the English returned to Madras. Hyder fixed his head-quarters at Arnee.

The war with the Mahrattas was conducted with success. Colonel Camac marched against the capital of Madajee Scindia's dominions: Scindia advanced to meet him, but was surprised in his camp, and his artillery and stores taken. This produced overtures of peace from the Mahratta chief; a treaty was concluded in October 1781, and a general peace with all the Mahratta states soon followed. Our enemies were now reduced to two, the French and Hyder, for Madajee Booslah had been bought off, and the Nizam remained inactive.

The great want of money to carry on the various military operations, induced the governor general to demand of the Nabob of Oude the balance due to the Company; and from Cheit Sing, rajah of Benares, a certain quota, usually paid, as it is said, in India from inferior princes to their superiors. This rajah sought to evade the demand, on pretence of inability. Mr. Hastings set out from Calcutta for Lucknow in July 1781. At Benares he was waited on by Cheit Sing; but that haughty man refused to see him, and sent his demand the next morning to the rajah, the tenor of which clearly announced a design to quarrel. A guard being placed over this prince, an attack was made on this guard, and Cheit Sing escaped, and repaired to Luttupoor. However, by the exertions of the governor, the province was reduced to obedience, and Bauboo Mehinnarain, the next lineal heir, placed in the zemindary.

In Oude several powerful jaghires still existed. The nabob and Mr. Hastings determined to resume them. Some of these were in the hands of the Begums, or princesses of Oude. These were not only forcibly taken from them, but their treasures were also seized in a manner not very honourable either to the nabob or the English.

Sir John Macpherson, in 1781, was dispatched to India as a member
of

of the supreme council, and carried out orders from government to procure peace if possible. On his arrival, the council of Fort St. George made the proper overtures. They at this time were informed by letter from Mr. Hastings of the terms of peace entered into with the Mahrattas, by which it was agreed that all places taken from the English, since 1776, should be restored; the claim of the Company to three lacks of rupees relinquished, and the islands of Salsette, Hog, Elephanta, and Coranja, guaranteed to the English. It was also agreed that Hyder should, if necessary, be compelled to restore all the territories he had taken from the Company or their allies. On receiving this intelligence, Sir Eyre Coote advanced towards Hyder, and required him to accede to the treaty. But that artful man evaded giving an answer until he had concerted with the French admiral an attack on Negapatnam. But this attack failed, by the defeat of Suffrein.

In consequence of a peace with the Mahrattas, it was resolved to make a diversion on the Malabar coast, and a detachment, under Col. Humberstone, advanced and took Calicut; and then entered Coimbatour, and took several small forts, one of which he garrisoned as a place of retreat, and laid siege to Paliagatchery; but the enemy appearing, he was obliged to retreat, and being pursued, lost many men, and his baggage and provisions.—The presidency of Bombay dispatched General Matthews to his assistance. Tippoo Saib quitted the Carnatic, and with wonderful celerity advanced against Humberstone, obliged him to quit the fort he had garrisoned, and pursued him to Panian, where Macleod joined him, and took the command. Tippoo invested this detachment, but being repulsed in an attack on their lines, retreated.

Soon after Tippoo suddenly decamped, and marched with rapidity

to the Carnatic. General Matthews took this opportunity to approach Onore. Macleod embarked with troops from Bombay; but before the junction, Onore was taken, and a dreadful slaughter made, not only of the garrison, but of persons of all ages and sexes: the spoil was great.

About this time news came of the death of the celebrated Hyder Ally, a man of great genius for military exploits, and who had long been a terror to the English. He was succeeded by his son, Tippoo Saib, now Tippoo Sultan. On news of his decease, the presidency of Bombay ordered General Matthews to penetrate into the Bednore or Canara country. He proceeded along the coast, stormed Cuddalore, but represented the impracticability of executing the proposed plan. He was then left to his own discretion, but he resolved to attempt to execute their orders. His march was marked with such cruelties, as fix an indelible blot on the British name. Anampore was taken by storm, and the garrison massacred, among whom were many women. Having forced a defile which led into the Bednore country, he advanced against the capital, which was traitorously surrendered by Hyet Saib the governor; but the treaty he entered into was immediately infringed. Hyet was imprisoned, but soon released, and it was clear there existed an understanding between him and Matthews. The latter, by his conduct, disgusted the army; and the principal officers, Macleod, Humberstone, and Shore, retired. On their report it was thought proper to recal Matthews.

Meantime a great force advanced against him; notwithstanding which he dispatched a detachment against Mangalore, which succeeded in taking that place; and Matthews was so imprudent as to march with only 2000 troops, to meet the Sultan with a very numerous army. He

was vigorously attacked, and five hundred men are said to have fallen, and on his retreating to the fortress, the Sultan took every precaution to prevent supplies from the low country: he drove the English from the Gauts, and took a large train of artillery. The panic spread; Cuddapore was abandoned, and the garrison fled to Onore.

In seventeen days the English garrison of Bednore was reduced to the greatest extremity, and were obliged to capitulate. The garrison were to be allowed the honours of war, to restore all public property, and every man was to retain what was his own. But no sooner was the fort surrendered, than the General ordered every officer to draw for what they wanted. By this infamous treachery the enemy was defeated in his purpose. Irritated at such base conduct, Matthews was thrown into irons, the officers were separated from their men; the General and many of them put to death; a severe but a just revenge for the cruelties they had before committed. Tippoo marched against Mangalore, and made a breach in the walls; but news arriving that a peace was concluded between France and England, and finding himself deprived of his allies, he soon after agreed to a peace also.

By the treaty between Great-Britain and Holland, the Dutch ceded Negapatnam to the English, who, on the other hand, agreed to restore Trinquinale, and such other places as they had taken from the Dutch. By the treaty with France, their settlements on the coasts of Orissa and Bengal were restored to the latter, and they were permitted to surround Chandernagore with a ditch. To Pondichery two districts were added; and to Karcical four magans; Mahé and the factory of Surat, were also restored to France.

Ever since Clive shewed the English the way to conquest, it has been their fate to be in continual troubles; no sooner have foreign

wars ceased, than domestic broils have begun.

Our close connection with the Nabob of Arcot has been a never-failing source of discord in the presidency of Madras. That prince having ruined his country by his extortion, found it necessary to make an assignment of his revenues to the East India Company to pay the expences of the late war, which was sanctioned by the Court of Directors. Repenting of this action, he applied to the Supreme Council to be released from his engagements, which was complied with.

Lord Macartney, who was then Governor of Madras, took part against the Nabob, and incurred the enmity of the council. General Stuart, who had taken a bold part in the affair of Lord Piggot, was in opposition to Lord Macartney, and probably would have treated him in the same manner. On the cessation of arms, Lord Macartney recalled Stuart from the army; and as he continued to cabal against government and the presidency, dismissed him from the service. Some hints he threw out of an intention to dispute this sentence, rendered it necessary to take more effectual measures, and caused him immediately to be arrested and sent on board a vessel bound to England. This measure induced Sir John Burgoyne, and four other Generals, to retire from the army. Burgoyne, however, resolved to keep the command of the King's troops, and his power to order courts martial; which necessitated the council to put him under arrest also.

We have seen the deplorable situation of Arcot, let us now turn our eyes to that of Oude, the Nabob of which holds the exalted rank of hereditary Vizier to the Mogul. This unfortunate prince had been compelled by the English to pay a subsidy of 312,000*l.* instead of 36,000*l.* and to pay for a large number of troops stationed in his territories. Since his accession in 1775, and

and by the operations of this treaty his kingdom had declined. When Mr. Hastings made his journey to Oude in 1781, much had been done to relieve this prince. The princesses of Oude, his mother and grandmother, and Fizoola Khan, his dependant, had been sacrificed, and their spoils appropriated to pay his debt to the Company. This however did not suffice, and Mr. Hastings found himself obliged to remove the British collectors of

Oude, who were accused of peculation.

To add to the distresses of this unfortunate country, a famine extended over the whole peninsula of India, and the province of Benares. These circumstances induced Mr. Hastings to concede a little towards the Nabob of Oude; the British resident was withdrawn, and security given for the payment of the balance due to the Company.

[To be continued.]

HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF ENGLISH MONEY.

ALTHOUGH it has been much controverted amongst the learned, whether the antient Britons had any money, yet it is justly believed by some authors, that in the earliest times, when money was first coined in this Island, it was both of gold and silver, wherein there was little or no alloy; and this has been confirmed by divers pieces of such like money dug up in different parts of this kingdom, which have been allowed to be British, whereof we see divers in Camden. Indeed some authors have quoted Cæsar to prove the contrary; but as an ingenious person has observed, * Cæsar's words are, *Nummo utuntur parvo & æneo*: nor can I see (says he) any reason to doubt of British coins of all sorts of metal, till some shall inform me whose coins those are which Mr. Camden and other writers take to be British. This was the more antient state of money in Britain; but in process of time it being found convenient to have a proportion of baser metal mixt with the pure gold and silver, the word Sterling was introduced, derived, as some will have it, from Easterling, a standard used by the merchants trading hither from the eastern parts, or from those Easterlings themselves

who were the first workmen of it; † of which opinion is Sir Henry Spelman, and the author of a very old treatise concerning money, entered at large in the red book in the time of Edward III. ‡ There are those that fetch it from the castle Sterling in Scotland, as if it had been first coined there. Others derive it from the name of an antient indenture or bond, which was taken by the Jews for security of their debts, and which was called the Jews star. But these opinions are confuted by a late learned author, who proves that the Easterlings had no silver money amongst them till the middle of the thirteenth century, so that consequently we could not have our first refiners from thence; but affirms, that the words *Sterlinus* and *Denarius* were both indifferently used, to signify that small piece of money which our Kings then coined, with little amulets or stars in each quarter of the reverse. As to the antiquity of the word amongst us, it is a strong dispute amongst our antiquarians, whether it be any older than the reign of Henry II. Nay, some will bring it as low as Richard I. § Lowndes || is of opinion, that the word sterling (denoting the goodness or degree of fineness)

* Mr. Lhwyd's Nat. Hist. Wales, in Philosoph. Transactions, Vol. V. p. 121.

† Lowndes's Essay upon Amendment of the Coin, p. 15.

‡ Dr. Nicholson's Historical Library, p. 253.

§ Chamberlain's Not. Ang. Edit. 16. par. 1. p. 10.

|| Essay, p. 15.

ness) was not known in the time of the conqueror, in regard there are no mention thereof in doomſday book, which values every manour (as it was worth in the times of the confessor or conqueror) in money *ad Numerum*, which imported twenty Shillings: or, *ad Penſam*; or, *ad Pondus*, but not in ſterling money; and yet the denomination of ſterling was ſoon after introduced, becauſe the ſtatute of the 25th of Edward III. refers to antient ſterling, as do the old indenture of the mint, and the antient entry concerning money; by which (ſays he) it ſeems evident, that a ſterling, or eaſterling, in a reſtrained ſenſe, ſignified nothing but a ſilver penny, which at the firſt was about three times as heavy as it is now; and was once called a Lundreſ, becauſe it was to be coined only at London. That the antient ſterling of England mentioned in the ſaid ſtatute, and the ſtandard and allay of the old eaſterling, mentioned in the indenture (20. May 46. Edw. III.) and the old right ſtandard of England, are to be underſtood thus: a pound weight troy of gold was divided into twenty four carraſts, and every carraſt into four grains of gold; and a pound weight of the old ſterling, or right ſtandard gold of England, conſiſted of twenty three carraſts, three grains and a half fine gold, and half a grain allay, which allay might be ſilver or copper; and a pound weight troy of ſilver was divided into ounces, pennyweights, and grains, as at preſent, and fix y grains were equal to one grain of gold; and the pound weight of old ſtandard ſilver, conſiſted as it does now, of eleven ounces two pennyweight fine ſilver, and eighteen pennyweight allay.

The firſt eight kings after the conqueſt continued to coin the like monies as their predeceſſors, only a little lighter; for of the Saxon pennies there are ſome at this day that

weigh more than a pennyweight; whereas ſew of thoſe which follow reach twenty-two grains. Till the time of Edward I. the Engliſh pennies were to weigh a pennyweight, equal to twenty four of our preſent grains; ſo that a pound of ſilver was a pound both in weight and tale.* The Normans alſo continued the like method as to inſcriptions, having round the king's head, his name and ſtyle, which was very ſhort; only REX, or REX ANGLO; and on the reverſe, the name of the mint-maſter, and place of coinage.

That all great ſums were yet paid by weight and touch, is generally agreed,† for by reaſon of the lightneſs and badneſs of money, it was ordained ‡ that the fines of manours ſhould be paid *ad Penſam*, which was as much money for a pound ſterling as weighed 12 ounces troy; ſo that payment of a pound *de Numero*, imported 20 s. *ad Scalum* 20s. 6d. and *ad Penſam* ſo much as weighed 12 ounces. The coins of the two firſt Williams are ſo rare (ſays Mr. Thoreſby §) that my utmoſt diligence could but procure one of either king, till by an accident, Anno 1703-4, a neſt of them was found at York. On their coins they both appear in a pearl diadem with labels at each ear, (as in Speed) and an arch croſs the Head, ſo that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh them, nay abſolutely impoſſible. Indeed it was obſerved ſome of them repreſented the king with the full face, and other with the ſide face, and ſometimes with the ſceptre, but were doubtfully aſcribed to both: but Mr. Thoreſby ſeems plainly to have diſtinguiſhed the difference, and aſcribes|| all thoſe with the full face to the conqueror, who reigned nigh as long again as his ſon, and had greater occaſions for money; and thoſe with the half face and ſceptre to Ruſus. Indeed Dr. Nicholſon

* Biſhop York's Tract. Coins MS. in Thor. Muſe. p. 349.

† Lowndes's Eſſay, p. 251.

§ Muſæum, p. 349.

† Ibid.

|| Ibid.

Nicholson * gives us an account of one with the full face, and inscribed WILLIAM. II; but Mr. Thoresby has rectified that mistake, which many have been led into by the form of the letter v at the end of PILEMV: that which they mistake for II as he observes, upon a nicer observation, by the declining of the stroke will appear to be designed for a v; by which accident there appears greater variety than ever was known before of the conqueror's money, whereof there are inscribed: WILEM. WILLEM. WILLEMV. OF WILLEMUS. PILEM. PILEMV. OF PILEMUS. REX. REX. A. ANGL. ANGLO. OR ANGLOR. Reverse a cross fleuree with four sceptres quarterly, or a cross with four pellets in each quarter, the name of the mint master and place of mintage; whereof there are of HEREFORD. LVNDEN. LOND. LVNDRE. OR LVNDR. for London, C. Canterbury, EO or Eofer York, LINDCOLN, Lincoln, EXETER. LOYNE Lancaster, PINC Winchester, DEOTFOVRD Thetford, † of this there is one inscribed REX. I. which, says the same author, is not to be reckoned a numeral letter, it being improper to pretend a distinction when there was none of the name before, but for part of the letter A.

There is likewise of Robert, eldest son of William the Conqueror, ROBERTVS—the prince on horseback with a large sword in hand, reverse, flowers-de-lis in each quarter of a cross fill the area, flowers, crescents, &c. in place of the inscriptions.‡

The coins of this king are exceeding rare, if, as is justly believed, all those with the full face are to be ascribed to the conqueror: nevertheless, in conformity to several authors, I shall place one with the full face to this king, inscribed PILEM. REX AN. a cross on each

side the king's head: reverse, a cross composed of double lines.§

The coins of Henry I. are of the same shape and size with the former, inscribed HENRIC. REX, so Speed has given it; or, HENRIC. REX. ANGL. The king's full face, sceptre and cross, and an open crown with three flowers-de-lis, which distinguishes this king's coin from those of Henry II. Reverse, a cross potent in each quarter of a large cross. ||

King Stephen is said to have coined a great deal of money, though it is now very rare, and is the same size with his predecessor's; the first after the conquest that is half-faced, with this inscription, STIEFN. B. and on the reverse, SPIDET: DN EV, which may possibly be the blundered name of some of his royal lords. A different sort shews both his eyes, though even there the face is somewhat sideways; the crown much the same with that of Henry I. only the flowers raised higher. Another, instead of the king's head has two angels, with STIEFN. RE. ¶ Mr. Thoresby has one with both the figures of Stephen; and Henry** likewise of EUSTACHIUS, Eustatius, son and heir apparent to King Stephen, but died before him, with a horse on one side, and a large cross of flowers-de-lis, which fills the area upon the other, without inscription: another of EUSTATIUS, figure with a sword in his hand; reverse, EBORACI. ED. TS. a pellet in each quarter of a cross, surrounded with a rose.

The coins of Henry II. exhibit him full-faced with crown and sceptre; the crown consisting of a row of pearls of five points, with a cross raised upon the middlemost, and HENRICUS. REX. A fairer sort exhibits him with a long beard; reverse, a cross of double lines, terminating

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* Histor. Library, p. 251.

† Thoresby's Museum, No. 124.

‡ Thoresby's Museum, No. 128.

** Thoresby's Museum, No. 130.

† Philosoph. Transactions, Vol. V. Part II. p. 30.

§ Speed and Thoresby's Museum, No. 125.

¶ Historical Library, p. 250.

at the inner circle; and four pellets in each quarter, which on some are conjoined by a small stroke in form of a cross, DODELM. ON. WING. (Winchester) NICOLE. ON. LVND. (London) one I have, ILGEH. ON. LVN. ON EVE. (York) ON CANT. (Canterbury) ON. NICOLE. (Lincoln.) An eminent antiquary has observed that he had two prodigal sons, Henry and John.* Henry, who died before him, was crowned in his life-time; whether he coined any money is uncertain, but it is certain he had a great seal.†

Richard I. his penny is remarkable from all his predecessors by the two faces, inscribed RICUS. R:::S REX. and reverse, A:V:: ON::NICO:‡ and --- REX ANGL. reverse, LONDON, three pellets in each quarter of the cross. § His money is very rare.

John, his coins give him full faced in a triangle, with crown and sceptre, inscribed, JOHANNES. REX. reverse, ROBERD. ON. DIVE (Dive-lin, or Dublin) a half moon and star in a triangle, a sure token the monies upon which it appears were coined in Ireland; the most antient harps, for which that kingdom is noted, being of that form. || He was the first that had the title of *Dominus Hybernice*.

Henry III. inscribed HENRICVS. REX III. OR REX TERCI. which sufficiently distinguishes this prince's coins; his head full faced and crowned, whereof there are two sorts, one with the sceptre, the other without. The crown (instead of the five points as in the former) consists of a pretty thick line, raised at each end, with a cross in the middle above the line, and three pearls below. Instead of the four pellets, on the reverse, in form of a cross, are three in form of a triangle; and a large double line cross continued to the outer rim. The Irish coin

has the king's head in a triangle; but on the reverse, the English cross and pellets. ¶ This king was the first that coined half-pence and farthings round, as appears by one in the Musæum of the Earl of Pembroke; before which time they used to break the penny into halves and quarters.

This Prince (as appears by the red book in the exchequer) amongst other great achievements of his most prudent government,** left that of restoring and establishing good monies for the use of the people, to recommend his name to subsequent generations. He sent for Mr. William de Turnemire, and his brother Peter, and others, from Marseilles, and one Friscobald, and his companions from Florence, and employed them in the working money, which money, as appears by the said book, was made in this manner: first it was cast from the melting pot into long bars; those bars were cut with sheers into square pieces of exact weights; then with the tongs and hammer they were forged into a round shape; after which they were blached, (that is, made white or resplendent by nealing or boiling) and afterwards stamped or impressed with an hammer to make them perfect money. For the coining of this money he had thirty furnaces at London, eight at Canterbury (besides three the Archbishop had there) twelve at Bristol, twelve at York, and more in other great burghs; in all which places they made the same hammered money of silver, supplied by the king's changers established at the same places, who (according to the certain rates or prices prescribed to them) took in the clipped, rounded, and counterfeit monies to be recoinced, and bought gold and silver of the merchants and others, to be fabricated into new monies; at the same time

* Rel. Spelman, p. 206.

† Tit. Honour, p. 134.

‡ Historical Library, p. 254.

§ Thoresby's Musæum, No. 154.

¶ Musæum, No. 143.

|| Thoresby's Musæum, No. 155.

** Essay.

time ordaining, *Quod proclametur per totum Regnum quod nulla fiat tonsura de nova Moneta sub periculo Vitæ & Membrorum, & amissionis omnium Terrarum & Tenementorum, &c.* And this hammered money continued through all the reigns of succeeding kings and queens, till about the year of our Lord 1663.

This prince was the first that fixed the standard of the coin; he was also the first that used *Dominus Hyberniæ* (constantly) upon his money, which is never wanting in his coins, nor in those of his son Edward II. nor in the groats of Edward III. but was afterwards left out; nor is there any more mentioned of Ireland upon the silver money, till King Henry VIII. He likewise left out the sceptre, which appears no more upon the small money till Henry VIII. nor upon the large till Queen Elizabeth's crown and half crown,* and the name of the mint-master on the reverse, instead of which he put the place of mintage. He was likewise the first that forbid the use of broken money. But it is difficult to distinguish the money of this king from Edward II. because the face, style, weight and reverse, are alike: but a learned antiquary† has since determined those with the three first letters EDW. to the first Edward: 1st, because of the plenty of this sort; for every one knows Edward I. coined abundantly more money than his son. 2dly, From the mintage at Dublin, which this Edward set up, and have always EDW. and never otherways; from

[To be continued.]

whence it is to be concluded, that all that are so writ do belong to him. EDW. R. ANG. DNS. HYB. the king full-faced and crowned, with an open crown consisting of three fleurs-de-lis, with two rays or lesser flowers not raised so high: the cross composed of a single line, pretty broad, and continued to the outer rim; three pellets in each quarter, circumscribed with the place of coinage, viz. London, Canterbury, York, VILLA. KINGSTON, Durham, Newcastle, Berwick, Lincoln, Exeter, Bristol, VILLA. SCI. EDMUNDI. Likewise his Irish money, the head in a triangle CIVITAS. DUBLINIE. Also Waterford, and Cork, both halfpence and pennies, which proves Sir John Davis was mistaken when he says that in this reign there was but one mint in Ireland.‡ At the same time there were divers foreign and counterfeit coins; one with a mitre, another with a lion upon it, a third of copper, blanchet to resemble the money of England, a fourth resembling that of King Edward, and a fifth plated, § known by the names of pollards, crokards, staldings, eagles, leonines, and steepings, cried down by act of parliament; two of them making in value but one sterling, their composition being an artificial mixture of silver, copper, and sulphur.

Afterwards he is reported, but falsely, to have ordered the minting of groats;|| and Speed pretends to give a cut of one of them, but in this it seems pretty certain he was mistaken.

HISTORY OF THE HORSE IN ENGLAND.

BY THE LATE RICHARD BERENGER, ESQ.

[Continued from Page 101.]

IT appears, however, from a singular and curious Latin tract, that in the reign of Henry II. both tournaments and horse-races, or something very like races, were cultivated with much earnestness and

* Thoresby's Museum, No. 156.

† Bishop of York.

‡ Thoresby's Museum, No. 176.

§ Lowndes's Essay of Coin, p. 6.

|| Nicholson's Historical Library, p. 255.

and care. Smithfield was then the chief theatre for these sports, as well as the first market for all sorts of horses. This place was originally called Smooth-field, *planus campus & re & nomine*, from its being a smooth level piece of ground, and therefore set apart as a proper spot, on which to shew and exercise horses. Without one of the gates of the city, says the historian, is a certain field, plain or smooth, both in name and situation. Every Friday (as at present) except some greater festival intervene, there is a fine sight of horses brought to be sold. Many come out of the city to buy or look on; to wit, earls, barons, knights, and citizens. It is a pleasant sight to behold the horses there, all gay and sleek, moving up and down, some in the amble, and some in the trot, which latter pace, although rougher to the rider, is better suited to men who bear arms. Here also are colts, yet ignorant of the bridle, which prance and bound, and give early signs of spirit and courage. Here likewise are maneged, or war-horses, (*Dextrarii*) of elegant shape, full of fire, and giving every proof of a generous and noble temper. Horses likewise for the cart, dray, and plough, are to be found here; mares big with foal, and others with their colts wantonly running by their sides.

Every Sunday in Lent, after dinner, a company of young men ride out into the fields on horses which are fit for war, and excellent for their speed. Every one among them is taught to run the rounds with his horse. The citizens sons issue out through the gates by troops, furnished with lances and shields: the younger sort have their pikes not headed with iron, and make representation of battle,

and exercise a skirmish. To this performance many courtiers resort when the court is near, and young striplings, yet uninitiated in arms, from the families of barons and great persons, to train and practise. They begin by dividing into troops, some labour to outstrip their leaders, without being able to reach them; others unhorse their antagonist, without being able to get beyond them. At other times two or three boys are set on horseback to ride a race; the signal being given, they set off, and push their horses to their utmost speed, sparing neither whip nor spur, urging them, at the same time, with loud shouts and clamours, to animate their endeavours, and call forth all their powers.*

The next period in which any particular mention is made of horses, is in the reign of Edward II. It appears from the annals of this prince, written by John de Trokelow, in the year 1307, that Edward was very fond of horses, and sent for them to Champagne in France. He also gave a commission, in the second year of his reign, to Bynde Bonaventure, and his brother, *pro viginti dextrariis et duodecim jumentis emendis in partibus Lombardiæ*: and requires all his friends and loving subjects to assist them in this important commission.†

The genius of Edward III. naturally inclining him to war, consequently made him fond, as he is reported to have been, of its images and representatives, tilts and tournaments; horses are too essentially necessary to both, not to have been deemed by him objects highly deserving his care and attention. He was, therefore, cautious and provident to be well supplied with them; and his own kingdom not being able to answer his wants, as well

* See the account of London by Stephanides, at the end of the 8th vol. of Leland's Itinerary. The same passage, inserted in Stow's Survey of London, is full of most shameful inaccuracies, which have been complained of already by Burton, in his commentary on Antoninus's Itinerary.

† Rymer, vol. i. p. 135.

well may be presumed, he purchased from time to time from other countries. We find him indebted to the count of Hainault 25,000 florins for horses, which he had furnished. The horses which the king had bought, were all marked, so as to distinguish the property.

This prince likewise sends to France, *pro quatuor dextrariis, seu magnis equis*.*

The sort of horses then in use for princes, military persons, and others of rank and distinction, were called *Dextrarii*. Edward bought these horses to equip himself for a war, in which he was engaged against Scotland, and to solemnize a tournament which he was to give at Werks; for which services these *Dextrarii* were accounted most fit, and always destined to them.

They were ranked at the head of all other species of horses, and answered for the most part to what is meant at present by a maneged horse, or one dressed and disciplined for war; to which, and the exercise of the tournament, they were set apart; for, upon common occasions, persons of rank and consideration always rode upon horses of inferior degree, distinguished by the names of coursers, amblers, palfreys, hackneys, nags, and poneys, recommended by their easy paces, and quiet temper. In several countries, it was a custom rigorously observed, that no knight of chivalry, or other gentleman, should ride upon a mare, it being thought dishonourable and vile.

The mares were always devoted to the cart, and all the ignoble services; and whether upon this account it was thought disgraceful in a gentleman to ride them, or whether they were put to these servile tasks merely because they would not ride them, is a question hitherto undetermined. The Spaniards, Turks, and some other nations, still

adhere to this absurd notion, upon all occasions.

The most obvious and natural reason which can be assigned for this partiality against the mare, seems to be, that the female sex is thought (among horses at least) not to have the strength, fire, and dignity of the male, and therefore is not so correspondent to the character and pomp of a knight, or warrior, as the horses; nor, as it was not a general custom to geld horses, could they have been trusted among the opposite sex. In other respects there is no reason to think them inferior to horses, and, *cæteris paribus*, always superior, as being perfect in nature, to geldings.

The horses known by the name of *Dextrarii* in Latin, *Desfriere* in Italian, and *Desfrier* in the French languages, were so called from the word *Dextra*, signifying in the Latin, the right-hand; they all having been carefully handled, dressed, or maneged, as we call it, from the Italian word *maneggiare*, which, in its literal sense, means no more than simply to handle. Others say, that it is to be taken in a figurative sense from the word *dextra*, importing the dexterity and readiness with which they work under their riders; and others, that they are so denominated from being led by grooms, when they attended their masters into the field or lists, by the right-hand. The first explanation seems to be the most clear and just.

These *Dextrarii* were also called *magni Equi*, or great horses, because they were required to be of the largest size, and were always intended to serve in war, or in the exercises of the tournament, which were nearly allied to it. As the riders were clothed in compleat armour, they were of a prodigious weight, and consequently demanded very strong and able-bodied, as well as tall horses, to carry them through

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* Rymer, vol. ii. p. 96.

Ibid. vol. iii. p. 110.

Ibid. p. 121.

their enterprizes: great and sized horses were therefore required, in opposition to palfreys, coursers, nags, and other common horses: and so farasmuch as these great horses were all required to be dressed or taught, that they might perform their tasks with more readineſs and fidelity; and as it is necessary that the rider should have knowledge and skill to guide his horse, those persons who professed the science of arms were obliged to learn the art of managing their horses, in conformity to certain rules and principles; and hence came the expression of learning to ride the great horse.

These heavy-armed troops were called in classical Latin, *Cataphracti*: the light-armed cavalry were stiled in unclassical Latin, *Hoblearii*, from their riding hobbies, or small horses, in French called *Hobbin*, or *Aubin* from the Italian word *Ufino*, signifying a small horse, as the word hackney is derived from the French, *Haquinée*, and that from the Italian *Achineca*, which means a quiet ordinary horse.

Modern horsemen will, perhaps, be surprized to hear, that these tilting and war-horses were all taught to amble; an usurping pace, which, for some centuries, almost universally deposed the trot.

In the account of the expences of purchasing and bringing into England the horses which were bought for Edward in France, among other articles, in the disbursements of his wardrobe, upon this occasion we find trammels (*Trynellis*, for the accounts are written in Latin) charged as an article, and with the following addition, explanatory of their use, in teaching horses to amble. *Haud aliter scilicet appellabant instrumenta illa, quibus usi sunt fabri ferrarii, five solearii (anglice farriers), ut eo facilius ad tollitum incedendum redderentur equi, quem quidem incesum mollem (ambling) lingua vocitamus vernacula.* The word *Traynells*, or *Traynells*, seems to be taken from the Italian word

Tramenare, to shake, to wriggle; which term is very expressive of the motion of the amble. These were made of yarn, or strong list, and frequently of iron, like chains, or fetters: in forming of which last, it was necessary to employ *fabri ferrarii*, or smiths, and *Solearii*, those who shod horses with iron shoes, with a long point coming from the toe, being put upon the hinder feet, to teach horses to amble, which shoes might be comprehended under the word trammels, as producing the same effect.

In the reign of Henry VII. (for in a work like this, there must be wide gaps) *Polydore Virgil* reports, that the English were wont to keep large herds of horses in their pastures and common fields; and that, when the harvest was gathered in, the cattle of different owners fed promiscuously together, for which reason they were obliged to castrate the horses: for as a large number of mares went together, as well as geldings, if stoned horses had been admitted among them, much disorder and mischief must have happened. No horses, therefore, were allowed to mix with them, and it is at this day contrary to law, to turn a stoned-horse into a common pasture. Hence the necessity of gelding. Those horses which were kept to cover mares, were always confined in safe and inclosed grounds, but more frequently in the stable, and were called *Equi ad Stabulum*, by contraction *Stallum*. Whence the Italian term *Stallone*, the French *Etalon*, the English, *Stallion*, or stalled horse, are derived; which expression prevails, and is in use at present with regard to the ox, which sometimes being kept from the pasture in order to be fattened, is called the stall-fed, and stalled ox.

The same writer says likewise, in confirmation of the custom of using ambling horses, "that the English were not given to trot, but excelled "in the softer pace of the amble."

The prince above-mentioned was
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so sensible of what advantage a strong and generous race of horses is to a kingdom, that he earnestly promoted, and encouraged the culture of them. It seems to have been at all periods of time, an universal desire to have large horses, for small and weaker sorts could not have executed the business required of them; and it appears by an act of parliament of the eleventh year of this reign, that the number of English horses sent abroad was so excessive, that it was necessary to attend seriously to this grievance, and prohibit all farther exportation. The act recites, that not only a smaller number of good horses were left within the realm, for the defence thereof, but also that great and good plenty of the same were in parts beyond the sea, which in times past were wont to be within this land; whereby the price of horses was greatly enhanced here, to the loss and annoyance of all the king's subjects within the same. To remedy this, an act was made, by which no owner of an horse should presume to transport it out of the kingdom, upon pain of forfeiture of the same; nor any mare of the value of six shillings and eight pence, without the king's special licence, upon pain of forfeiture of

the same mare, the owner, or his deputy, receiving for the said mare, the sum of six shillings and eight pence at the time of seizure: the mare or mares to be sold openly, by the proper officer, for the best price offered, and the half or all the over-price to be to the king, and the other part to him who seized: and farther, that no mare shall be sent out of the land which is above the value of six and eight pence, and under the age of three years, without paying the king's custom of six and eight pence per mare, the king's special licence being first obtained. Besides this, another clause follows, which must have been so effectual, as almost to make the preceding regulations totally useless. It enacts, that if any person will give for any of the mares so to be carried, seven shillings, it shall be lawful for him to take away the said mare for his own use, if she had not been taken before by the king's officer, nor the king's licence first obtained; it being lawful for any denizen notwithstanding, to transport an horse abroad, without the king's licence, provided such horse be for his own use, and he declares upon oath, at the time of shipping, that he does not intend to sell them.

[*To be continued.*]

OBSERVATIONS MADE IN A TOUR THROUGH FRANCE.

BY T. F. HILL.

[*Continued from Page 120.*]

THE history of France since the age of Louis XIV. is a lesson in finance for all the nations of the modern world: above all, it contains the rudiments of the grammar of royalty, to teach Kings that, in this our age at least, and perhaps in every other, property is the main spring of government. What indeed is the great purpose of social government, but the protection of property and peace? The ancients appear not sufficiently to have at-

tended to the influence of property and finance in the State: it is the part least understood, and least explained in the ancient historians; it was left for our Adam Smith to become the oracle, the more than Tacitus, of this branch of human manners. The weight of debt, whose foundations were laid under Louis XIV. induced the present revolution. Funding, when carried to any extent, is incongruous with the principles of absolute monarchy,

as that mode of government affords no sufficient security for the deposited capital. The Regent Orleans, at the death of Louis XIV. found the finances in such distress, as to induce him to adopt the chimerical system of law: which, by throwing every thing into confusion, enabled him to temporize at least, and even to cover, in some degree, the blemishes of the State. During the long administration of Cardinal Fleury, whose peaceful policy does him more honour as the support of monarchy, not only than his contemporaries, but even than posterity, have hitherto been willing to allow him; the nation had time to re-establish itself, the good effects of his conduct appeared in the great exertions of France, and at length in her brilliant success during the war of 1748. The celebrated seven years war soon manifested the defects of the finance of France; and, being attended with many misfortunes, prepared the downfall of absolute monarchy, as contradictory to the adopted system of funding, a system more powerful than kings themselves. The American war completed the work, and obliged the present monarch, by the prospect of imminent dissolution, to expiate the faults of his ancestors, by calling together the forgotten states of his kingdom, and submitting himself as the victim of offended liberty and the despised rights of the people. The effects of the reign of Justinian at Constantinople were extremely similar to those of the government of Louis XIV. at Paris; the glorious but consuming administration of that Emperor gave a blow to the Greek empire, which even during nine successive centuries, it was never able to recover; and in our days, the papal state appears to be exactly in its situation. But let us not imagine that our own government is free from danger; the power of appearances itself alone shields us from immediate peril; but palliatives and well-timed actions, or

even the repeal of inefficient taxes, are not sufficient to protect us from the future force of this tremendous principle, how much soever such measures may be productive of temporary popularity: but if no more effectual means be employed than those which our Fleury has hitherto adopted, a new phoenix will hereafter certainly arise in England as now in France, from the exanimated ashes of the old one.

The longer I staid at Paris, the more symptoms of disunion and confusion appeared. Perhaps there was not an order in France, not a party among the multitude which divided the kingdom, that did not seem to be preparing itself for new troubles. The very patriots, and the National Assembly itself, who might be thought to have had most reason to triumph, were yet dissatisfied. They complained that the Ministers were not to be trusted, and especially Montmorin, then secretary at war; the refusal of the assent to the decree against the emigrants had offended them highly, and they treated the King as the traitorous friend of the aristocratic party. Some of them even ventured to declare openly, that a new shock, similar to those which had preceded, was necessary for the support of the constitution: future events explained their meaning. The whole energy of the state appeared to be centrifugal, and none centripetal: the kingdom resembled a rope of sand, ready to drop asunder in a moment. The revolution now seemed to want some decided chief of distinguished talents to direct it; but such a character had not appeared during the revolution: Mirabeau approached it the nearest, and his death, agreeable to what I have already said, was supposed by many to have left a chasm in the column of state, which threatened every moment to extend even to its foundation.

On the evening of the twentieth of November, I attended the fa-

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mous club of the Jacobins. The influence of this society is well known, and I have already had occasion to refer to it more than once. The meeting is held in what was formerly the church of the Jacobins, with which also the monastery is connected, for committee rooms and other purposes. The galleries for the admission of strangers, I have already mentioned. The affairs of state are treated here in the same manner, though less regularly, than in the National Assembly: and the resolutions here made, are often there merely sanctioned. Not every thing indeed that is debated there, is predetermined here; but what is resolved here, seldom fails there. It is a government within the government: some of the members would have compared it to our political clubs, such as the Constitutional Club, the Revolution Club, and others, but there is scarcely any resemblance. Our clubs never regularly debate the affairs before Parliament, nor would their resolutions be able to direct, scarce even to influence the Parliament: their consequence in the State is very trifling. The French political clubs rather resemble the committees of officers, and other similar meetings, during our civil wars; for the time of troubles in one country, resembles the time of troubles in another. Our modern clubs are not concealed committees of government.

A memorial from the Brabantine patriots was read before the club on this occasion, offering to support the revolution against the emigrants, in case of necessity, with a body of twenty thousand men.

Also the members of some of the friendly clubs in London were admitted to the right of attending the meetings of the Jacobins, in consequence of a similar privilege conferred on the Jacobins in London. It is the policy of the firmest friends of the present system in France to sue as much as possible for the friendship of England: I had even

heard them, when in France six years ago, boast the advantages which would ensue from an alliance between the two nations; we should then, they pretended, be masters of Europe, and consequently of the world. For the last forty years, France has been accustomed to make connections with her most inveterate rivals: she has leagued herself to Austria and Spain, the practice is therefore not strange or surprising to them. At this time they see no other power, which can be of much essential service, likely to ally with them; we are at present the only nation, of any great importance, which pretends to be free, themselves excepted; to us, therefore, they look for countenance and support. Hence every correspondence with England is encouraged by the National Assembly: hence they receive with tokens of the highest respect the addresses of English societies, even of the lowest class; and letters from clubs assembling in the most inconsiderable taverns of London, are treated as evident monuments of the sense of the English people, and endeavoured to be confounded with the highest authorities of the nation. Thus an address from the members of some society, almost unknown in London, calling themselves the Constitutional Whigs, was received by the Assembly with the same ceremony as though it had issued from St. Stephen's chapel, and a deputation even appointed to carry it to the King. They endeavoured to have it believed, from the identity of names, that these Constitutional Whigs were the same with the great national party, called Whigs. Such are the arts of faction. The French vulgar, easily deluded, suppose the English nation warm in their favour, and ready to exert every nerve in their support. The National Assembly, on the other hand, employ these means not wholly without success, in order to obtain popularity. This conduct excites

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our ridicule, but it procures respect from the French, strangers to our domestic œconomy. Thus one part does not know, and the other will not know, that the English people are invincibly averse to all alliance with France; that the late revolution is regarded by the majority among us, through the medium of jealousy and malevolence; and that, such is the force of our Antigallican antipathy, even liberty itself is going out of fashion in England, because it has found favour in France. In our very dress, whatever of our modes is once adopted among them, according to the present imitation of our fashions, which the love of liberty has strengthened abroad, that becomes instantly forsaken among us. They certainly, however, have no right to expect that we should expose ourselves to a war upon their account.

A young ex-capuchin appeared at this meeting of the Jacobins, requesting the influence of the society might be employed to preserve him his pension as an excluded monk, in spite of his being about to be married, which regularly would deprive him of it. He was recommended to marry first; and that then the society, on his application, would employ its influence, as it was expected with success, to obtain his excuse. It produced no little merriment, both among the female and the male spectators. He appeared a very stout hearty young fellow, and likely, as he promised, to procure new subjects for the State.

Towards the conclusion of the month of November, I began evidently to feel, that the present National Assembly was far from possessing that weight in the public esteem which belonged to its predecessor, and enabled it to act with so much energy. I could perceive scarcely any government in France. The royal authority had been almost annihilated by the revolution, and now the ascendancy which the Na-

tional Assembly had acquired declining also, no power remained to rule the State.

In the theatres, whatever bore an interpretation in favour of the King and kingly dignity, was received with the loudest approbation, just as the doctrines of liberty formerly were, the prohibited wishes of the public escaping from them by this means. At the Italian theatre, one evening about this time, I heard the phrase, "*Quand on se bat pour son roi, il faut vaincre ou mourir;*" though containing a sentiment superlatively aristocratic, yet met with a thunder of applause from almost every part of the house. The theatre of the Rue Feydeau, however, was, and I believe still is, the aristocratic stage.

I conceived that a prodigious leaven of aristocracy was then fermenting in France: but I afterwards found myself in some degree mistaken; it shews itself to be not exactly aristocratic. The National Assembly however, and the Ministry, or executive power, were essentially at variance. Troubles were bursting every where, nor did there appear any government in force sufficient to suppress them, nor seemingly even to collect the necessary taxes of the State, which almost all the departments neglected, and some openly refused to pay. It then appeared to me, that a coalition by treaty with the Princes and their adherents, consistent with the most judicious expectations of those fugitives, and directed by very able politicians, would become necessary to settle the kingdom: yet I doubted whether even this would be sufficient, for the powers of anarchy were at work, and the existing government seemed likely to dissolve like the old one; or if it did not wholly dissolve, to suffer another crisis much more violent than any which had preceded. Such were the remarks I made from the prospect then before me: subsequent events

events altered my ideas, and at the same time changed even the nature of the government. The National Assembly has been able, while I now write, to swear violently and in peace against any attempt to compromise the constitution.

It was reported about this time, that the money of the emigrants came to them from the estates of the low countries; another of the inventions employed to conceal its real source. The aristocratic party resumed new courage every day, from the neglect into which the Assembly had fallen, and invigorated their measures greatly in consequence. The friends of the present system seemed to repent that the first or Constituent Assembly, as it is called, had not sat at least a year longer, till affairs were more firmly settled; the constitution was supposed to be finished, they said, much before it really was so.

The credit of the assignats declined greatly at this period, so that the bankers would not keep any quantity in their possession, not even to the amount of an hundred louis; not that they were afraid of the final solvency of the assignats, but of their

temporary value. Whatever property, therefore, the bankers received, they instantly endeavour to convert into the securities of some foreign funds. Every thing bore the aspect of expected disturbances. Yet an advertisement appeared just at this moment, wherein a new bank or banking society, offered to reduce assignats into small notes of their own, at the rate of eight in the hundred; for the expulsion of small money, and the want of small assignats, had rendered this change also a business of agiotage, and now worth a much higher premium: they likewise asserted, in the same advertisement, that they would give cash for assignats at a premium of ten in the hundred in the month of January: but I was then convinced this must be a mere bubble; and I believe it was merely done, either to raise a new banking-house, societies of that kind being then so advantageous; or rather, perhaps, to counteract the increasing depression of the assignats. The premium on cash fluctuated about this time from twenty to thirty-five in the hundred, and then settled at twenty-seven.

[*To be continued.*]

JOURNEY OVER THE DESERTS OF ARABIA.

BY M. PAGES.

[*Continued from Page 127.*]

WE passed the night quietly, and the next day we pursued our journey. At noon the apprehensions of the eve were verified; we discovered a horseman, who came up to us; the camels were stopped, and a conference took place with him. It appeared as if they could not agree, for the horseman turned back, and every one took to his arms.

Meanwhile the caravan resumed its march; but a quarter of an hour after, we saw a good number of horsemen and armed men on foot advancing. The camels were stop-

ped again, and brought closer together; blue colours, with certain white signs and characters, were hung out. The musketeers advanced within two hundred paces of the caravan; the lances remained fifty paces from the colours, which were supported by the rest of the Arabians, armed with scimeters and clubs, and who were stationed at the corner of the caravan towards the enemy. The latter moved forward in a troop of five hundred men; we had a hundred and fifty on our side, and prepared to give them a warm reception, under the cries of Allah

ou Allah; by which I conjectured that they called God for witnesses of the action they were going to perform. The enemy having arrived within two hundred paces from the musketeers, came on running, as I have already said was practised at the Arabian camp, near which we had fixed ours some days before. Then began a slight fire, and the enemy divided themselves about the plain to surround our caravan; but they were careful to keep at the distance of a musket-shot, when they discharged; and if they seemed sometimes inclined to break through our line, we closed and advanced to the encounter. When they saw that we were disposed to engage with them, they retreated by slow steps. This continued till night, when the musketeers rallied, after the greater part of the enemy had withdrawn to some distance. We had none killed among us, but our Arabians pretended that they had killed three or four of the enemy, and two of their horses. A detachment of our guards was posted forward, and those of the caravan answering the signal of good guard, or discovery by singular cries; this gave me a favourable idea of the prudence of those people. The night was spent in the camp with much mirth and dances, imitating combats. My companions excited their courage by their name of Ben-Halet, or children of Halet, and inflamed their wrath by the name of Turquis or Ture, whom they consider as their mortal enemies. I endeavoured to insinuate to my conductor, who appeared to be brave and prudent, that they would better strengthen themselves for the combat of the next day, by indulging themselves in rest, without exhausting their strength by unavailing marks of joy. I told him, that without waiting for the enemy's being reinforced, they would do wisely to march the next day, placing the camels in the middle of the combatants on the two wings, to face the enemy. I was not listened to, and

was too little acquainted with Arabia to propose my advice in the assembly of the Arabians, which was held round the colours. I resigned myself to Providence, and tried to avail myself of the interval by sleeping, which was often disturbed by the balls that whistled about my ears.

At day-break an attack was recommended, under the same circumstances as on the eve, and it ceased after about two hours. Towards eight o'clock a parley was opened with the enemy, and I was desired to lend money: I promised what I had about me. Divers messages were received from the enemy, but to all appearance without agreeing upon any terms of accommodation, for they mentioned nothing more about the loan, and I was informed that the enemy wanted to have us totally stripped, and at their discretion. I conjectured that such an extraordinary animosity against caravans, which always pass freely upon paying a certain sum, could only proceed from the resentment they entertained of the first hostilities that had been committed against the twelve Arabians, and of the spilling the blood of their brethren in the engagement. However that may be, after receiving a definitive answer from the enemy, arms were taken up again, but we were not in a state long to resist this fatigue. It was now the fifth day since we had quitted the last wells, and we stood in want of water; the excessive heat, and the agitation in which we were, had exhausted our strength.

On the evening, the enemy renewed their attack at us, but it was not supported: they did not approach nearer than within gun-shot, and we missed none of our company. The night put end to the skirmish, and they retreated half a league on the plain. Advanced guards were posted as the preceding night, which, together with the centres of the caravan, made a good guard. Several fires were lighted; but I perceived various clandestine counsels

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and whisperings, which made me suspect some new trick. Towards ten o'clock saddles were thrown over the dromedaries: my conductor asked me for my linen to carry on his, which he put with his own apparel. Another Arabian took my provisions which were most portable, and I was bid to throw away the rest. I saw several Arabians doing the same. However, some time after, the greater part of my provisions was distributed upon divers dromedaries, and the whole was secured firmly upon them. I was warned to hold as fast on my dromedary as possible, for that flight was resolved upon.

It would be difficult to express the situation I was in at this sentence. I saw myself obliged to follow the caravan at the pleasure of the dromedary. The rough gait of this animal exposed me to the most frightful dangers. If I fell in the first flight, I was undone in that immense desert, or I risked being trampled under foot by the other run-aways. In the former case there was no resource but taking my way to the north, towards the shores of the Euphrates: I knew they were frequented by Arabians in that season, but they lay at least the distance of five days journey. Sometimes I wished the enemies might rush upon us, that I might put myself in their hands, or sell my life dear; but I was informed that they gave no quarters to prisoners of war, even after having stripped them; and that they only allowed hospitality in their tents, which were perhaps distant. I put my trust in God alone, and I leaned on my mattress, expecting the signal for flight.

About four in the morning, the cries of good guard were redoubled, and several fires were kindled, which being made only of dry brambles, were soon extinguished. A profound silence succeeded, and towards half past four, when our advanced guard redoubled their cries of "All is well," my Arabian bid me mount

my camel, and the same instant the whole caravan started like a flash of lightning, flying to the south-east, whence we came. I remarked through the vast clouds of dust that arose, and which rendered our departure horrible to behold, that the camels destined for sale had one foot fastened. It is likely they took this precaution to avoid the trouble of having them at their heels, and to amuse the enemy and impede their course.

We fled about three leagues to the south, at the swiftest rate the dromedaries could run. Providence alone supported me upon this animal, where I lay stretched as upon a table. Its motions were to me intolerably violent, each of them gave a convulsive shock to my lungs: my hands served me as saddle-bows before and behind, but they were wounded by the violence of the friction; my nerves lost their sensation, and I was twenty times on the point of losing my hold.

The enemy pursued us, stripped several of our people, and amused themselves in pillaging the goods and young camels, which we had left in their way to secure our flight. One person of the eight that came from Bassora with me fell into their hands. Their hurry in stripping him gave us time to leave them at some distance behind us; and after running three leagues south-east, we wheeled into another road with our small troop of seven, and separated ourselves from the caravan. I am ignorant of what has befallen the other Arabians, as I have never since heard of them. We made a large circuit, and by this means left the rest of the caravan, as well as the enemy, on a different course, and soon resumed our direction to the north-west.

Flying still the same way, and with the same celerity, we found a soil where were some detached rocks. My dromedary stumbled, and shook me from my equilibrium. I fell at some distance, and the frightened

animal overthrew its burthen. Fortunately there was a generous Arabian at hand, who took me hastily behind him on the bare back of his dromedary; and another Arabian cut the ropes with which my goods had been tied to my dromedary, who dragged them after him. I abandoned my provisions and some apparel in the desert, and my dromedary marched unincumbered before us.

Towards the evening we entered the bed of a ravin or gully, that was dried up, and concealed ourselves, whilst one of our people went to reconnoitre upon an eminence, whether he could perceive any motion upon the plain. He discovered neither the caravan nor the enemy. We remounted, and I again took my dromedary. He had now only a sort of pack-saddle, composed of a large cushion of hay, which lay upon his bunch, and four pieces of plank, in form of a saddle-bow, which fastened that cushion to the bunch. I pursued my road with an increase of sufferings, as we went on nearly at the same rate as before. At ten o'clock we arrived at a spring of very sweet water; it was at the foot of a rock, where shrubs were growing, which insured its good quality. I was overborne with thirst and fatigue. I drank in one draught near two bottles, and was soon after very ill. We were yet not without fear at this watering place; and we dreaded falling in with tents of enemies on our way, which might have attacked us, the fresh tracks of the beasts that had been watered there in the morning was calculated still more to inspire us with distrust. One of our men was stationed on an eminence, where he kept a good watch, and we were ready to fly at the first signal. Luckily nothing was perceived in the desert, and I believe that our march was not discovered.

I was willing to reward the Arabian who had taken me so generously upon his dromedary, when in flying

I fell from my own. By this service he had snatched me from an almost inevitable death of hunger or thirst, and was like to expose his own safety to the enemy. I could only offer him four piastres. He was unwilling at first to accept of them, not knowing what might induce me to give him that money, so deeply is charity engraved on the mind of those people. At length I left them on his gown, and went away. Some moments after he returned to restore them, nor could I prevail upon him to keep them, but by assuring him that it was a spontaneous gift which I made him, because I loved him.

I was now destitute of provisions, having lost and abandoned them in the desert; but my companions, the good Arabians, maintained me.— They gave me a portion of a cake larger than their own; they baked it under ashes, or heated sand: they cut it in pieces, and then kneaded it again with dates, and butter made of the milk of the camel. This mixture was not bad, but we could not often repeat it, from want of provisions; in default of it we eat dates. They continued thus to nourish me until our separation, without ever betraying the least motive of interest, and allowing me always a better portion of their victuals than they reserved for themselves.

We did not stop long at that watering-place, from fear of a surprise, which the fresh tracks of an enemy seemed to threaten us with. We mounted our camels after dinner, and run till night, almost with the same speed as in the morning. I was exhausted with fatigue and pain, and covered with wounds in those parts by which I kept hold of the pack-saddle; and as it was often thrown back by the movement of the animal, it sometimes left me on the naked bunch. My nerves, deprived of sensation, had lost their use, and my fingers quaked, through the great agitation of my blood, like keys on the harpsicord. This condition did not even leave me the appetite

appetite necessary for repairing my strength; I placed all my hopes in sleep, which I flattered myself to take at night, but by nine in the evening my companions announced to me the necessity of departing. I could not hesitate. Happily for my safety we went a slower pace, which I could bear more patiently. At two in the morning we rested in a hidden place, and slept till six in the morning. We remounted afterwards, and continued our road the whole day, now on the *grand pas*, then with full speed, according as the desert seemed to us more or less frequented. The next day we discovered the Euphrates, and a house on its shore; but having perceived people on a sudden, we flew back with the greatest celerity. In the place we flew to, we perceived at a distance heaps of stones, which likely were marks for the direction of the road. I saw also some hillocks, but I could not conjecture

[*To be continued.*]

from their form whether they were the work of men or of nature. Since our departure our direction had been regulated on day-time by the fixed point of the wind, which blows north-west, and at night we were guided by the stars.

I was surprised at the excellency of our dromedaries, who differ from those of Africa, being smaller, and having only one bunch. Beside the fatigue, which such a length of journey as we run in a day caused them, they remained sometimes four and five days without drinking; and they fed only in haste, and as they run, upon the few brambles they could catch on their march, for they remained under their burthen all the night. They have the faculty of casting up their drink and food, which they have in a manner swallowed with greediness, to chew them over again like oxen. It would be useless farther to characterize this animal, which is generally well known.

DISSERTATION ON THE HINDU'S.

BEING THE THIRD ANNIVERSARY DISCOURSE DELIVERED TO THE ASIATIC SOCIETY, FEB. 2, 1786.

BY SIR W. JONES.

(*Continued from Page 112.*)

II. **O**F the Indian religion and philosophy, I shall here say but little; because a full account of each would require a separate volume; it will be sufficient in this dissertation to assume, what might be proved beyond controversy, that we now live among the adorers of those very deities, who were worshipped under different names in old Greece and Italy, and among the professors of those philosophical tenets, which the Ionic and Attic writers illustrated with all the beauties of their melodious language. On one hand we see the trident of Neptune, the eagle of Jupiter, the satyrs

of Bacchus, the bow of Cupid, and the chariot of the Sun; on another we hear the cymbals of Rhea, the songs of the Muses, and the pastoral tales of Apollo Nomius. In more retired scenes, in groves, and in seminaries of learning, we may perceive the Brâhmans and the Sarmanes, mentioned by Clemens, disputing in the forms of logic, or discoursing on the vanity of human enjoyments, on the immortality of the soul, her emanation from the eternal mind, her debasement, wanderings, and final union with her source. The six philosophical schools, whose principles are explained in the *Deršana Sâstrâ*,

Sâstra, comprise all the metaphysics of the old Academy, the Stoa, the Lyceum; nor is it possible to read the Vêdânta, or the many fine compositions in illustration of it, without believing, that Pythagoras and Plato derived their sublime theories from the same fountain with the sages of India. The Scythian and Hyperborean doctrines and mythology may also be traced in every part of these eastern regions; nor can we doubt, that Wod or Oden, whose religion, as the northern historians admit, was introduced into Scandinavia by a foreign race, was the same with Buddha, whose rites were probably imported into India nearly at the same time, though received much later by the Chinese, who soften his name into Fô.

This may be a proper place to ascertain an important point in the chronology of the Hindus; for the priests of Buddha left in Tibet and China the precise epoch of his appearance, real or imagined, in this empire: and their information, which had been preserved in writing, was compared by the Christian missionaries and scholars with our own era. Couplet, De Guignes, Giorgi, and Bailly, differ a little in their accounts of this epoch, but that of Couplet seems the most correct: on taking, however, the medium of the four several dates, we may fix the time of Buddha, or the ninth great incarnation of Vishnu, in the year one thousand and fourteen before the birth of Christ, or two thousand seven hundred and ninety-nine years ago. Now the Casmirians, who boast of his descent in their kingdom, assert that he appeared on earth about two centuries after Krishna, the Indian Apollo, who took so decided a part in the war of the Mahâbhârat; and, if an etymologist were to suppose that the Athenians had embellished their poetical history of Pandion's expulsion and the restoration of Theseus with the Asiatic tale of the Pandus and Yudhishtîr, neither of

which words they could have articulated, I should not hastily deride his conjecture; certain it is, that Pandumandel is called by the Greeks the country of Pandion. We have therefore determined another interesting epoch, by fixing the age of Krishna near the three thousandth year from the present time; and as the three first Avatârs, or descents of Vishnu, relate no less clearly to an universal deluge, in which eight persons only were saved, than the fourth and fifth do to the punishment of impiety and the humiliation of the proud, we may for the present assume, that the second, or silver, age of the Hindus was subsequent to the dispersion from Babel; so that we have only a dark interval of about a thousand years, which were employed in the settlement of nations, the foundation of states or empires, and the cultivation of civil society. The great incarnate gods of this intermediate age are both named Râma, but with different epithets; one of whom bears a wonderful resemblance to the Indian Bacchus, and his wars are the subject of several heroic poems. He is represented as a descendant from Surya, or the Sun, as the husband of Sîtâ, and the son of a princess named Caufelyâ: it is very remarkable, that the Peruvians, whose Incas boasted of the same descent, styled their greatest festival Ramafitôa; whence we may suppose, that South America was peopled by the same race, who imported into the farthest parts of Asia the rites and fabulous history of Râma. These rites and this history are extremely curious; and although I cannot believe with Newton, that ancient mythology was nothing but historical truth in a poetical dress, nor, with Bacon, that it consisted solely of moral and metaphysical allegories, nor, with Bryant, that all the heathen divinities are only different attributes and representations of the sun or of deceased progenitors, but conceive that the whole system of religious

religious fables rose, like the Nile, from several distinct sources, yet I cannot but agree, that one great spring and fountain of all idolatry in the four quarters of the globe, was the veneration paid by men to the vast body of fire which "looks from his sole dominion like the God of this world;" and another, the immoderate respect shewn to the memory of powerful or virtuous ancestors, especially the founders of kingdoms, legislators, and warriors, of whom the sun or the moon were wildly supposed to be the parents.

III. The remains of architecture and sculpture in India, which I mention here as mere monuments of antiquity, not as specimens of ancient art, seem to prove an early connection between this country and Africa: the pyramids of Egypt, the colossal statues described by Pausanias and others, the sphinx, and the *Hermes Canis*, which last bears a great resemblance to the *Varáhavatár*, or the incarnation of *Vishnu* in the form of a boar, indicate the style and mythology of the same indefatigable workmen who formed the vast excavations of *Canárah*, the various temples and images of *Buddha*, and the idols which are continually dug up at *Gayá*, or in its vicinity. The letters on many of those monuments appear, as I have before intimated, partly of Indian, and partly of *Abyssinian* or *Ethiopic*, origin; and all these indubitable facts may induce no ill-grounded opinion, that *Ethiopia* and *Hindustán* were peopled or colonized by the same extraordinary race; in conformation of which it may be added, that the mountaineers of *Bengal* and *Bahár* can hardly be distinguished in some of their features, particularly their lips and noses, from the modern *Abyssinians*, whom the *Arabs* call the children of *Cúsh*: and the ancient *Hindus*, according to *Strabo*, differed in nothing from the *Africans* but in the straightness and smoothness of their hair, while that of the others

was crisp or woolly; a difference proceeding chiefly, if not entirely, from the respective humidity or dryness of their atmospheres: hence the people who received the first light of the rising sun, according to the limited knowledge of the ancients, are said by *Apuleius* to be the *Arii* and *Ethiopians*, by which he clearly meant certain nations of *India*; where we frequently see figures of *Buddha* with curled hair, apparently designed for a representation of it in its natural state.

IV. It is unfortunate, that the *Silpi Sástra*, or collection of treatises on arts and manufactures, which must have contained a treasure of useful information on dyeing, painting, and metallurgy, has been so long neglected, that few, if any, traces of it are to be found; but the labours of the *Indian* loom and needle have been universally celebrated; and fine linen is not improbably supposed to have been called *Sindon*, from the name of the river near which it was wrought in the highest perfection: the people of *Colchis* were also famed for this manufacture, and the *Egyptians* yet more, as we learn from several passages in scripture, and particularly from a beautiful chapter in *Ezekiel*, containing the most authentic delineation of ancient commerce, of which *Tyre* had been the principal mart. *Silk* was fabricated immemorially by the *Indians*, though commonly ascribed to the people of *Serica* or *Tancút*, among whom probably the word *Sér*, which the *Greeks* applied to the silkworm, signified gold; a sense which it now bears in *Tibet*. That the *Hindus* were in early ages a commercial people, we have many reasons to believe; and in the first of their sacred law-tracts, which they suppose to have been revealed by *Menu* many millions of years ago, we find a curious passage on the legal interest of money, and the limited rate of it in different cases, with an exception in regard to adventures

ventures at sea; an exception which the sense of mankind approves, and which commerce absolutely requires, though it was not before the reign of Charles I. that our own jurisprudence fully admitted it in respect of maritime contracts.

We are told by the Grecian writers, that the Indians were the wisest of nations; and in moral wisdom they were certainly eminent: their *Niti Sástra*, or System of Ethics, is yet preserved, and the fables of *Vishnuferman*, whom we ridiculously call *Pilpay*, are the most beautiful, if not the most ancient, collection of apologues in the world: they were first translated from the Sanscrit in the sixth century, by the order of *Buzerchumihir*, or bright as the sun, the chief physician, and afterwards *Vezir* of the great *Anúshirevân*, and are extant under various names in more than twenty languages; but their original title is *Hitopadésa*, or amicable instruction; and as the very existence of *Esof*, whom the Arabs believe to have been an Abyssinian, appears rather doubtful, I am not disinclined to suppose, that the first moral fables which appeared in Europe, were of Indian or Ethiopian origin.

The Hindus are said to have boasted of three inventions, all of which, indeed, are admirable, the method of instructing by apologues, the decimal scale adopted now by all civilized nations, and the game of chess, on which they have some curious treatises; but if their numerous works on grammar, logic, rhetoric, music, all which are extant and accessible, were explained in some language generally known, it would be found that they had yet higher pretensions to the praise of a fertile and inventive genius. Their lighter poems are lively and elegant; their epic, magnificent and sublime in the highest degree; their *Puránás* comprise a series of mythological histories in blank verse from the Creation to the supposed incarna-

tion of Buddha; and their *Védas*, as far as we can judge from that compendium of them which is called *Upanishat*, abound with noble speculations in metaphysics, and fine discourses on the being and attributes of God. Their most ancient medical book, entitled *Chereca*, is believed to be the work of *Siva*; for each of the divinities in their Triad has at least one sacred composition ascribed to him; but, as to mere human works on history and geography, though they are said to be extant in *Cashmír*, it has not been yet in my power to procure them. What their astronomical and mathematical writings contain, will not, I trust, remain long a secret: they are easily procured, and their importance cannot be doubted. The philosopher whose works are said to include a system of the universe founded on the principle of attraction and the central position of the sun, is named *Yvan Acharya*, because he had travelled, we are told, into *Ionia*: if this be true, he might have been one of those who conversed with *Pythagoras*; this at least is undeniable, that a book on astronomy in Sanscrit bears the title of *Yavana Jática*, which may signify the Ionic sect; nor is it improbable that the names of the planets and zodiacal stars, which the Arabs borrowed from the Greeks, but which we find in the oldest Indian records, were originally devised by the same ingenious and enterprising race, from whom both Greece and India were peopled; the race, who, as *Dionysius* describes them,

“First assayed the deep,
“And wafted merchandize to coasts unknown,
“Those, who digested first the starry choir,
“Their motions mark'd, and call'd them by their names.”

Of these cursory observations on the Hindus, which it would require volumes to expand and illustrate, this is the result: that they had an immemorial affinity with the old Persians,

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PASAN.

Persians, Ethiopians, and Egyptians, the Phenicians, Greeks, and Tuscans, the Scythians or Goths, and Celts, the Chinese, Japanese and Peruvians; whence, as no reason appears for believing that they were a colony from any one of those nations, or any of those nations from them, we may fairly conclude that they all proceeded from some central country, to investigate which will be the object of my future Dis-

courses; and I have a sanguine hope, that your collections during the present year will bring to light many useful discoveries; although the departure for Europe of a very ingenious member, who first opened the inestimable mine of Sanscrit literature, will often deprive us of accurate and solid information concerning the languages and antiquities of India.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PASAN.

WITH AN ELEGANT PLATE.

THIS animal is a native of the Cape of Good Hope, and little known in Europe. The head does not resemble either that of a stag or a goat, but it far surpasses any other horned beast in the beauty of the head; the colour of which is chiefly white, and on the top is a spot of black, which descends about two inches over the forehead; from the middle of this spot, a small point advances between the eyes, and above the bone of the nose begins a large black spot, which runs down within two inches of the nostrils. From each horn another ray of black descends, which passes under the eyes, and joins the top of the fastments and spot; and another passes under the lower jaw: all these spots alter their colour as they descend from black to brown, and seem to form a bridle round the head. The neck is shorter than is customary in the different species of goats, and approaches nearer to the antelope; the colour is a dark and cloudy grey, somewhat like the flower of the apple-tree. Under the neck is a brown streak, which runs down to the fore legs. The hair is like a stag's, strong and bristly.

The sides and thighs are of the same colour, and clouded likewise. The tail is brown, and near the end

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black. From the tail is a broad brown stripe, which rises up to the reins, where the hair divides and turns all ways, from whence a stripe of brown hair up to the head; and this hair insensibly increases, until on the neck it is so long as to form a kind of mane.

The legs are white, each having an oval spot on the knee of the fore legs, and one of the same size on the hinder legs. These spots are four inches long, one broad, and begin about four inches above the hoof; the hinder legs are a little spotted, and mixed with brown hair. At the thighs, a spot of the same colour begins, which runs along each side to the fore legs.

On the outside of the thighs is an oval spot, mixed with brown and white hair.

On each foot are two spurs above the hoofs, very sharp and cutting, and of the length of an inch and a half.

The ears are round, bordered with brown hair. The beast has eight incision teeth in the lower jaw.

The horns are bent, but very little, and we must look steadily at them to perceive it: they have circles round them, nearly half their length.

Their hoofs form a long triangle, D d whereas

whereas in the general race of these creatures they are almost perfect triangles; from whence we may conclude, that this species of antelopes stand very firm, and are capable of springing well and taking great leaps; it appears also that these aid them much in slipping more easily down steep mountains.

The dimensions of this animal are—

	Feet. In.	
Length in a right line from the end of the nose to the tail	4	1
Length of the horns	2	1
Height of the shoulders	3	0
Height behind	3	1
Measures round	3	8

A SHORT ACCOUNT OF AN EXCURSION THROUGH THE SUBTERRANEAN CAVERN AT PARIS.

BY MR. THOMAS WHITE,

MEMBER OF THE ROYAL MEDICAL SOCIETY OF EDINBURGH.

IN A LETTER TO HIS FATHER.

FROM THE MEMOIRS OF THE LITERARY AND PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY
AT MANCHESTER.

I Yesterday visited a most extraordinary subterranean cavern, commonly called the Quarries. But before I give you the history of my expedition, it will perhaps be necessary to say a few words concerning the *Observatoire royal*, the place of descent into this very remarkable cavern. This edifice is situated in the Fauxbourg St. Jacques, in the highest part of the city. It takes its name from its use, and was built by Louis XIV. in 1667, after the design of Claude Perrault, Member of the Academy of Sciences, and first architect to his majesty. It serves for the residence of mathematicians, appointed by the king, to make observations, and improve astronomy. The mode of building it is ingenious, and admirably contrived, it being so well arched that neither wood nor iron are employed in its construction. All the stones have been well chosen, and placed with an uniformity and equality which contribute much to the beauty and solidity of the whole edifice. It is reckoned to be about eighty or ninety feet in height, and at the top there is a beautiful platform, paved with flint stones, which commands an excellent view of Paris,

and its environs. In the different floors of this building, there are a number of trap-doors, placed perpendicularly over each other, and, when these are opened, the stars may be very clearly distinguished, from the bottom of the cave, at noon day.

At this place I was introduced to one of the inspectors, (persons appointed by the king to superintend the workmen) by my friend Mr. Smeathman, who had used great application and interest for permission to inspect the quarry, and had been fortunate enough to obtain it. For as this cavern is extended under a great part of the city of Paris, and leaves it in some places almost entirely without support, the inspectors are very particular as to shewing it, and endeavour to keep it as secret as possible, lest, if it should get generally known, it might prove a source of uneasiness and alarm to the inhabitants above. For, what is very remarkable, notwithstanding the extent of this quarry, and the apparent danger many parts of the city are in from it, few, even of those who have constantly resided at Paris, are at all acquainted with it, and on my mentioning the ex-

pedition

pedition I was going to undertake to several of my Parisian friends, they ridiculed me upon it, and told me it was impossible there could be any such place.

About nine o'clock in the morning we assembled to the number of forty, and, with each a wax candle in his hand, precisely at ten o'clock, descended, by steps, to the depth of three hundred and sixty feet perpendicular. We had likewise a number of guides with torches, which we found very useful; but, even with these assistants, we were several times under the necessity of halting, to examine the plans the inspectors keep of these quarries, that we might direct our course in the right road. I was disappointed in not being able to obtain one of these plans, which would have given the clearest idea of this most extraordinary place. At the entrance, the path is narrow for a considerable way; but soon we entered large and spacious streets, all marked with names, the same as in the city; different advertisements and bills were found, as we proceeded, pasted on the walls, so that it had every appearance of a large town, swallowed up in the earth.

The general height of the roof is about nine or ten feet; but in some parts not less than thirty, and even forty. In many places, there is a liquor continually dropping from it, which congeals immediately, and forms a species of transparent stone, but not so fine and clear as rock crystal. As we continued our peregrination, we thought ourselves in no small danger from the roof, which we found but indifferently propped in some places with wood much decayed. Under the houses, and many of the streets, however, it seemed to be tolerably secured by immense stones set in mortar; in other parts, where there are only fields or gardens above, it was totally unsupported for a considerable space, the roof being perfectly level, or a plane piece of rock.

After traversing about two miles, we again descended about twenty steps, and here found some workmen, in a very cold and damp place, propping up a most dangerous part, which they were fearful would give way every moment. We were glad to give them money for some drink, and make our visit at this place as short as possible. The path here is not more than three feet in width, and the roof so low, that we were obliged to stoop considerably.

By this time several of the party began to repent of their journey, and were much afraid of the damp and cold air we frequently experienced. But, alas! there was no retreating.

On walking some little distance farther, we entered into a kind of saloon, cut out of the rock, and said to be exactly under the *Eglise de St. Jacques*. This was illuminated with great taste, occasioned an agreeable surprise, and made us all amply amends for the danger and difficulty we had just before gone through. At one end was a representation in miniature of some of the principal forts in the Indies, with the fortifications, drawbridges, &c. Cannons were planted, with a couple of soldiers to each, ready to fire. Centinels were placed in different parts of the garrison, particularly before the governor's house; and a regiment of armed men was drawn up in another place, with their general in the front. The whole was made up of a kind of clay which the place affords, was ingeniously contrived, and the light that was thrown upon it, gave it a very pretty effect.

On the other side of this hall, was a long table set out with cold tongues, bread, and butter, and some of the best Burgundy I ever drank. Now every thing was hilarity and mirth; our fears were entirely dispelled, and the danger we dreaded, the moment before, was now no longer thought of. In short, we were all in good spirits

again, and proceeded on our journey about two miles farther, when our guides judged it prudent for us to ascend, as we were then got to the steps which lead up to the town. We here found ourselves safe, at the *Val de Grace*, near to the English benedictines convent, without the least accident having happened to any one of the party. We imagined we had walked about two French leagues, and were absent from the surface of the earth betwixt four and five hours.

After we had thanked the inspectors and guides for their very great civility, politeness, and attention, we took our leave to visit the English benedictines convent, in whose court-yard, and within a few yards of their house, the roof of the subterraneous passage had given way, and fallen in, the depth of one hundred and ninety-three feet.

Though there were some little danger attending our rash expedition (as some people were pleased to term it) yet it was most exceedingly agreeable, and so perfectly a *nouvelle scene*, that we were all highly delighted, and thought ourselves amply repaid for our trouble.

I regretted much that I did not take a thermometer and barometer down with me, that I might have had an opportunity of making some remarks on the temperature and weight of the air. Certainly, however, it was colder at this time than on the surface of the earth. But Mr. Smeathman informed me, that when he descended the last winter, in the long and hard frost, he found the air much more temperate than above ground, but far from warm. Neither, however, had he a thermometer with him. I lamented too that I had not time to make more remarks on the petrefactions, &c.

Mr. Smeathman observed, that when he descended, he found a very sensible difficulty of breathing in some of the passages and caverns, where the superincumbent rock was low, and the company crowded.

This no doubt was much increased by the number of persons and of wax lights, but he does not apprehend that the difficulty would have been so great in rooms of equal dimensions above ground. We remarked too, when we descended, that there was in some degree an oppression of respiration throughout the whole passage.

There were formerly several openings into the quarries, but the two I have mentioned, viz. the *Observatory* and the *Val de Grace*, are, I believe, the only ones left; and these the inspectors keep constantly locked, and rarely open them, except to strangers particularly introduced, and to workmen who are always employed in some part by the king.

The police thought it a necessary precaution to secure all the entrances into this cavern, from its having been formerly inhabited by a famous gang of robbers, who infested the country for many miles round the city of Paris.

As to the origin of this quarry, I could not, on the strictest enquiry, learn any thing satisfactory; and the only account I know published, is contained in the *Tableaux de Paris, Nouvelle édition, tom premier, chapitre 5me. page 12me.*

“ Pour batir Paris dans son origine, il a fallu prendre la Pierre dans les Environs; la consommation n’en a pas été mince. Paris s’agrandissant on a bâti insensiblement les Fauxbourgs sur les anciennes Carrieres, de sorte que tout ce qu’on voit en dehors, manque essentiellement dans la terre aux Fondemens de la Ville; de la, les Concavites effrayantes, qui se trouvent adjoin’d’hui sous les maisons de plusieurs quartiers; elles portent sur les Abysses. Il ne foudroit pas un choc bien considerable, pour ramener les pierres au point d’ou on les a enlevées avec tout d’effort. Huit personnes ensevelies dans un Gouffre de cent cinquante Pieds de Profondeur, et quelques autres acci-
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"dens moins connus, ont excité
"enfin la vigilance de la Police, et
"du gouvernement; & de fait, on
"a étagé en silence les edifices de
"plusieurs quartiers, en leur don-
"nant dans ces obscurs Souterreins
"un apui qu'ils n'avoient pas.

"Tout le Fauxbourgs St. Jacques,
"la Rue de la Harpe, & meme la
"Rue de Tournon, portent sur
"d'anciennes Carriers, & l'on a
"bati des Pilastrs pour soutenir le
"Poids des Maisons. Que de ma-
"tiere a reflexions, en considerant
"cette grande ville formée, & sou-
"tenue par moyens absolument
"contraires! ses Clochers, ces
"Vontes des temples, autant de
"signes, qui disent a l'oeil ce que
"nous voyons en l'air manque sous
"nous Pieds."

"For the first building of Paris,
"it was necessary to get the stone in
"the environs, and the consump-
"tion of it was very considerable.
"As Paris was enlarged, the suburbs
"were insensibly built on the an-
"cient quarries, so that, all that
"you see without is essentially want-
"ing in the earth, for the founda-
"tion of the city: hence proceed
"the frightful cavities, which are

"at this time found under the
"houses in several quarters. They
"stand upon abysses. It would not
"require a very violent shock to
"throw back the stones to the place,
"from whence they have been raised
"with so much difficulty. Eight
"men being swallowed up in a gulph
"one hundred and fifty feet deep,
"and some other less known acci-
"dents, excited at length the vigi-
"lance of the police and the go-
"vernment, and, in fact, the build-
"ings of several quarters have been
"privately propped up; and by
"this means, a support given to
"these obscure subterraneous places,
"which they before wanted.

"All the suburbs of St. James's,
"Harp-street, and even the street
"of Tournon, stand upon the an-
"cient quarries; and pillars have
"been erected to support the weight
"of the houses. What a subject
"for reflections, in considering this
"great city formed, and supported
"by means absolutely contrary!
"These towers, these steeples, the
"arched roofs of these temples are
"so many signs to tell the eye, that
"what we now see in the air, is
"wanting under our feet."

ACCOUNT OF ATCHEEN, IN THE ISLAND OF SUMATRA.

BY THOMAS FORREST, ESQ.

[Continued from Page 130.]

THEY have at Atcheen many
fishing-boats, in shape like a
large thames wherry, supposed to
be raised about 20 inches: they are
called *kolay*, and have one mast, and
a sail shaped almost like a ship's
top-sail, with a yard above, hung by
a hallyard, about one third from
the outer yard arm, and a slight
round boom below, with a sheet
and one bridle only. If the wind
freshens too much, they with a cross
stick like a trunnel, that passes
through the inner end of this boom,
roll up the sail, sheet and all, pas-
sing the lower end of the trunnel

forward, then unroll as the wind
slack. A tack is fast to the inner
yard arm. I need not say the sail
must be dipped in putting about,
which is easily done, whether the
sail is altogether or partly rolled
up. I never saw any thing so con-
venient in any European boat, in
managing which if it blows they
must lower and reef; here they
only roll the sail up or roll it down.

Fish, notwithstanding they have
many fishing boats, is not very
cheap, as the Atcheeners seem fond
of that diet. They catch several
miles out at sea, with nets in those
boats,

boats, a kind of mackerel, or small bonnetta, weighing from 2 to 3 pounds. I have seen worms half an inch long, alive in their flesh, on the back part, when fresh caught. They go out with the land, and return with the sea, wind: their cargoes are presently bought up.

They have also at Atcheen boats with double outriggers and two masts; they are called *bidoo* in general sense, but particularly *ballellangs* and *jellores*: the *ballellang* is rather the broadest. The *banting*, a boat so called, with 2 masts, is tolerably broad, and has no outrigger; those boats that have are comparatively narrow; yet on such they often mount swivel guns, and 20 or 30 men: they sail remarkably fast, in light winds, also in fresh gales, if the water is smooth; if in bad weather one outrigger fails, the other supports the boat. I have seen *jellores* with only one outrigger, sometimes to leeward, sometimes to windward; but not like the ingenious Ladrone prow described in Lord Anson's voyage, which shifts stem for stern. In boats with one outrigger, on one tack, the outrigger to windward weighs down as in the Ladrone prow; on the other tack the outrigger buoys up the body of the boat; so in either case she is kept upright.

The country above the town is very highly cultivated, and abounds with inhabitants in many small villages, and single groups of three or four houses, with white mosques interspersed. Walking that way, if after rain, is disagreeable to a European, as they have no idea of roads: but Malays do not mind walking through mud up to the knee, which, however, they are careful to wash off, when they come to a house, before they enter it. The main street in the town is raised a little, and covered with sand and gravel; but nowhere else are the streets raised; and even this is sometimes overflowed by the swelling of the river, by sudden rain on the hills

just above the town; in which case they make use of canoes: this often happens, especially during the rainy season (our summer); but the town, which is on the south side of the river, straggles so as not to deserve the name of the capital of a populous though small kingdom. They have an excellent breed of horses, much valued at Madras; horned cattle and goats, but few or no sheep. Vessels drawing under eight feet water can come over the bar with spring tides, which is two miles from the town; but cannot go higher than about half a mile, where they sometimes heave down and repair. Here are many of the king's warehouses (*golas*) for Telinga salt. Many Maldivia boats come yearly to Atcheen, and bring chiefly dried bonnetta in small pieces about two or three ounces: this is a sort of staple article of commerce, and many shops in the Bazar deal in it only, having large quantities piled up, put in matt bags. It is, when properly cured, hard like horn in the middle; when kept long the worm gets to it. I am told it is cured at the Maldivia Islands by the sun only. I question whether herrings and pilchards would not answer even carried thus far, they are so fond of fish diet, as Malays in general are. The king's palace (*dallum*) about 100 yards from the skirt of the town, and to which there is access by a canal from the river, as well as by land, is about three quarters of a mile in circumference, is ditched round, and is also surrounded with a strong wall, but not high. A number of large venerable trees shade it, with a good many tall bamboos: it is built on higher ground than the town, so of course it is not subject to be overflowed. I shall say more of it by and by.

I have said, that in the year 1762 I touched at Atcheen in my way to Bencoolen. The shabander, whose name I forgot, not agreeing with me about the price of opium, and learning

learning from the linguist Abraham, that it was impossible to deal with any other person, about the beginning of January I sailed through the Surat passage, with the wind at N. E. leaving about 12 Chulia vessels in the road of Atcheen, and proceeded to Nalaboo, lying in $4^{\circ} 10' N.$ lat. Here, during the N. E. monsoon the weather is remarkably fine, just as it is on the Malabar coast during that monsoon. There is excellent anchorage in 10 fathoms muddy ground, 10 or 12 miles off Nalaboo, and 4 fathoms 2 miles off. During the S. W. monsoon the wind is W. and N. W. with rain.

When I first came near Nalaboo, remarkable for a grove of cocoa-nut trees, on a small promontory (yet not above six feet higher than the beach or low land) I saw in the horizon next the land (being then five leagues off) about twenty small white specks, that seemed to pass across each other: presently I saw each white speck had a smaller black speck close to it, and immediately after found I had got close to a fleet of the smallest fishing boats I ever beheld. The white speck was a sail, and the black speck a man. These canoes fish all under sail, the sail similar to what I have before described; the single man seated abaft, poising his body with great care, unsteps and steps the mast, and sets the sail by leaning forward. They sometimes catch large fish, that drag the boat for perhaps half a minute; these they tow on shore in a small bay between the cocoa-nut grove above mentioned and river's mouth. I have bought from those fishermen, fish of all sizes, very cheap. Into this fresh-water river boats of middling size can enter at all times, except dead low water; and Malay trading prows get in, and go a great way up into a plentiful flat country, abounding with rice. Here fifteen fowls are sold for a dollar; a bullock may be bought for six; and good profit may be had on European goods, especially iron,

steel, and cutlery, also Bengal opium, and coffas of eight and nine rupees value. The king endeavours to monopolize all the trade, but in vain. The gold dust of Nalaboo is reckoned very fine, and the boncal weighs seventeen mayan; at Soosoo not so fine.

In 1762, I sold, during a stay of about ten days, thirty chests of opium to Limambaly, the feudal lord of this district, as the king's officers happened not to be on the spot. I got ten boncal a chest, which is above 550 rupees: the Calcutta prime cost was 250 Arcot rupees. Since that time Limambaly certainly was at war with the king, about the year 1770. I forgot to say, that, during the S. W. monsoon, which, by the gite (lying) of the coast, becomes N. W. and blows fresh with rain, the very small fishing canoes are laid up, and large Atcheen fishing boats (*kolays*) are made use of at Nalaboo; at Soosoo there is a good harbour, in which I have been.

The king of Atcheen gets most of his gold from Nalaboo and Soosoo, and from Pedir within the Malacca strait most of his beetle-nut and pepper. I was once on board of a large Bombay ship, commanded by a very worthy gentleman, Captain Richardson, who had just partly delivered from Atcheen Road a cargo of Coromandel piece goods to the shabander, and had then on board the king's officers, and was bound to Pedir to take in a cargo of beetle-nut. Portuguese vessels carry much beetle-nut, both whole, and cut and dyed red, from Atcheen to Pegu.

English country ships at Atcheen trade always with the king's merchant, who is generally the shabander or minister: this, at least, gives dispatch; they could not have patience to deal with the natives, as the Chulias do, even were they permitted. English vessels have often been cut off at Pedir, when trading there without the king's leave; this happened

happened to Captain Bull and Captain Panton, two very worthy gentlemen, commanding vessels from Bengal, about the year 1765. Captain Bull's vessel was taken by a spirited Serang, when the Malays were off their guard. I am certain, at Nalaboo, Oran Cayo Limambally had no such intention, as he gained upon me so much by his civilities, that I was entirely in his power; but I would advise Malay traders never to be off their guard, as I was, and to be most upon it when great civility is shewn them. At Nalaboo I went on shore more than once; it was rather imprudent. The kings of Atcheen, who seem from all accounts to have been formerly cruel and oppressive tyrants, perhaps wink at such baseness, perhaps encourage it. The persons employed are the most abandoned, at the same time they are of smooth address, who, when the plot is ripe, direct their instruments how to act; as for example, as I have been told, it once happened to an English country captain.—“When I call for my beetle-nut box,” (*tampat seerree*, which is about six or eight inches long, and three or four deep) says the head assassin to his servant, “that is the signal for you to stab the captain with the cres that lies in the bottom of the box covered with beetle leaves.” It is the general custom to disarm the Malays when they come on board to trade: but who would suspect the beetle-box?

The following is an account of one of the most horrid conspiracies I ever heard of; it affects me the more as I was intimate with the sufferers a few days before it happened. It is irregular in point of time, but a-propos to what I am treating of, the treachery and wickedness of Malays in general. In 1784 I waited on the king of Queda at Allister, about one tide above the town, to demand restitution of the value of an English snow and cargo, value 5000l. whose commander,

Captain Cossan, supercargo, Mr. Overbury (a Bencoolen civil servant), two Englishmen, brothers, named May, and the gunner, a Dane, were in one night murdered, September 1782, by one Malay, assisted by one Lascar only, whom he had seduced. They were first attempted to be poisoned, and were all taken with violent vomiting the night the horrid deed was done, after supper: yet no suspicion arose, as the Malay was a passenger in the vessel, under Mr. Overbury's protection. The affair was over in a moment, as they were stabbed in their sleep. One of the two Mays being wounded, jumped overboard, and was never heard of; the captain and gunner were killed outright. Next day the Serang, under pretence of dressing the Malay's hand, that had been cut in struggling with the captain, stabbed him, secured the Lascar (whilst two boats were seen rowing from the shore to the vessel full of men, from Bals Harbour), and carried the snow back to Queda. I could get no satisfaction for vessel or cargo, and Jemmal, the king's minister, a Chulia Moorman, treated the affair lightly: but, truth demands of me to say, I had no letter from the Bengal government, to the king on the subject; I had only a letter from the owners, empowering me (if in my way to Rhio I touched at Queda) to make the demand. What has been done since I know not. Captain Cossan and I careened in Queda River together, in August 1782; and I remember to have heard that the Malay, who had got into favour with Mr. Overbury by his insinuating manners, was taken on board at Jan Sylan, where, I suspect, he had committed something bad. I was credibly informed the Lascar was let run off by Jemmal, who told me he broke prison. The appearance of the boats, that must have been informed by signal only of what had happened, made it be suspected it had been a concerted business at Queda, when the

the vessel repaired there. These particulars I learnt from poor Overbury's Malay girl, at Calcutta. Jemmal, the king's merchant, with difficulty let her have her clothes. She told me Overbury got from the cabin window to the mast head, whence he descended, on the Malay's promising to spare his life; but he stabbed him the moment he reached the quarter-deck. Had he

encouraged the crew from the mast head, they surely would have recovered from their fright sooner than they did.

This is a strange relation, and shews the pusillanimity of Indostaners, when they are not encouraged by a leader: there was at least a Serang and twenty Lascars belonging to the vessel.

[To be concluded in our next.]

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE REPRESENTATION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

THE glorious privilege of being governed by laws to which we give our assent, is, we are told, the inestimable birth-right of an Englishman. As this principle is generally admitted, and as it is allowed on all hands that various abuses have been introduced into the representation of the country, it seems highly proper to investigate the real state of such representation; for without such an enquiry, it seems morally impossible for the most sensible and acute politician to prescribe a remedy. In doing this, it becomes necessary to search into the ancient state of each represented body, their political character, right of election, number of voters, and, lastly, into that which is in fact the great cause of all the abuses, into who is the *patron* or prevailing power in each county, city, borough, &c.

That power was originally in the people, is a fact that no one in his senses will deny; and that in order to secure the liberties and properties of individuals, it becomes necessary for every community to delegate such power to some one man, or body of men, to enact laws, and regulate occurrences. In the British constitution, this power is confided to the parliament, consisting of the King, the Lords, spiritual and temporal, and the Commons, or representatives of the people. To preserve to the people their share of the legislation, it is necessary that

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such representation should be kept free and independent of the other states. Our business, therefore, in the ensuing enquiry, will be to see how far such independence has been maintained or trespassed upon.

The constitutional form of parliaments, consists in every Englishman possessing the privilege to be present either by himself or representative. The peers sit in the upper house, and legislate in person. The other part of the community legislate, as they necessarily must, by representation. The necessity, therefore, of keeping this part of the constitution free from the influence of the other two, must be evident. Yet from various circumstances we are compelled to confess that an influence does prevail; and to see to what extent it prevails, and how far the House of Commons of England represents the whole body of the people, is the intent of the following.

Without entering into the question at what time the Commons of England exercised the right of electing representatives, we have the most undoubted proof, that all the northern nations were governed by their own consent, and they entrusted to the chiefs the conducting of lesser affairs. Tacitus tells us, *De Minoribus rebus principes consultant de Majoribus omnes*. And Xephiline tells us, *Apud hos (Britannos) populus magna ex parte principatum tenet.*—

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Among them (the Britons) the people exercise the chief sovereignty.

The Saxons had their Wittena Gemotes, or assembly of wise men, which constitution, it is true, was subverted by the feudal system; and it has been the labour of ages, between the conquest and the revolution, to restore to the people their just rights.

Our business is now to exhibit the present state of the representation; and to shew one instance in which it is incomplete, we shall first give a list of boroughs which once sent members to parliament, and do not at present; although many of them are still places of great population and consequence.

Dunstable, Bedfordshire, summoned 4 Edw. II. when discontinued not known.—*Newberry, Berkshire*, summoned 30 Edw. I. discontinued 11 Edw. III.—*Ely, Cambridgeshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 27 Edw. III.—*Wisbeach, Cambridgeshire*, not known when summoned or discontinued.—*Polurun, Cornwall*, summoned 11 Edw. III. discontinued 12 Edw. III.—*Egremont, Cumberland*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Bradnesham, Devonshire*, summoned 6 Edw. II. discontinued 7 Edw. II.—*Crediton, Devonshire*, summoned 35 Edw. I. discontinued 36 Edw. I.—*Exmouth, Devonshire*, summoned 14 Edw. III. discontinued 15 Edw. III.—*Tremington, Devonshire*, summoned 6 Edw. III. discontinued 7 Edw. III.—*Liddeford, Devonshire*, summoned 28 Edw. I. discontinued 30 Edw. I.—*Modbury, Devonshire*, summoned 34 Edw. I. discontinued 35 Edw. I.—*South Moulton, Devonshire*, summoned 30 Edw. I. discontinued 31 Edw. I.—*Teignmouth, Devonshire*, summoned 14 Edw. III. discontinued 15 Edw. III.—*Torrington, Devonshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 45 Edw. III.—*Blandford, Dorsetshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 22 Edw. III.—*Winborn, Dorsetshire*, not known when summoned or discontinued.—*Sherborn, Dorsetshire*,

summoned 11 Edw. III. discontinued 12 Edw. III.—*Milton, Dorsetshire*, not known when summoned or discontinued.—*Bere Regis, Dorsetshire*, not known when summoned or discontinued.—*Chelmsford, Essex*, summoned 11 Edw. III. discontinued 12 Edw. III.—*Alresford, Hampshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 35 Edw. I.—*Alton, Hampshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 4 Edw. II.—*Basingstoke, Hampshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 4 Edw. II.—*Fareham, Hampshire*, summoned 34 Edw. I. discontinued 36 Edw. I.—*Odiham, Hampshire*, summoned 28 Edw. I. discontinued 36 Edw. I.—*Overton, Hampshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 2 Edw. III.—*Bromyard, Herefordshire*, summoned 33 Edw. I. discontinued 34 Edw. I.—*Ledbury, Herefordshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 34 Edw. I.—*Ross, Herefordshire*, summoned 33 Edw. I. discontinued 34 Edw. I.—*Berkhamstead, Hertfordshire*, summoned 11 Edw. III. discontinued 15 Edw. III.—*Storteford, Hertfordshire*, summoned 4 Edw. II. discontinued 15 Edw. III.—*Greenwich, Kent*, summoned 4 and 5 Philip and Mary, discontinued 6 Philip and Mary.—*Tunbridge, Kent*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Manchester, Lancashire*, summoned during the Commonwealth, when discontinued not known.—*Melton Mowbray, Leicestershire*, summoned 11 Edw. III. discontinued 12 Edw. III.—*Spalding, Lincolnshire*, summoned 11 Edw. III. discontinued 12 Edw. III.—*Waynfleet, Lincolnshire*, summoned 11 Edw. III. discontinued 12 Edw. III.—*Bamberg, Northumberland*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Corbrigg, Northumberland*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Burford, Oxfordshire*, summoned 34 Edw. I. discontinued 35 Edw. I.—*Chipping Norton, Oxfordshire*, summoned 28 Edw. I. discontinued 34 Edw. I.—*Doddington, Oxfordshire*, summoned 30 Edw. I. discontinued 34 Edw. I.—*Whitney*,

—*Whitney, Oxfordshire*, summoned 33 Edw. I. discontinued 5 Edw. III.
 —*Oxbridge, Somersetshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 17 Edw. III.—*Chard, Somersetshire*, summoned 28 Edw. I. discontinued 3 Edw. III.
 —*Dunster, Somersetshire*, summoned 34 Edw. III. discontinued 35 Edw. III.—*Glastonbury, Somersetshire*, summoned 12 Edw. III. discontinued 13 Edw. III.—*Langport, Somersetshire*, summoned 33 Edw. I. discontinued 36 Edw. I.—*Montacute, Somersetshire*, summoned 33 Edw. I. discontinued 34 Edw. I.—*Stoke Curcy, Somersetshire*, summoned 34 Edw. III. discontinued 35 Edw. III.—*Watchet, Somersetshire*, summoned 30 Edw. I. discontinued 31 Edw. I.—*Were, Somersetshire*, summoned 34 Edw. I. discontinued 36 Edw. I.—*Farnham, Surrey*, summoned 4 Edw. II. discontinued 38 Hen. VI.—*Kingslon-upon Thames, Surrey*, summoned 4 Edw. II. discontinued 47 Edw. III.—*Bradford, Wiltshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Mere, Wiltshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 1 Edw. II.—*Highworth, Wiltshire*, summoned 26 Edw. I. discontinued 27 Edw. IV.—*Bromsgrove, Worcestershire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Dudley, Worcestershire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Kidderminster, Worcestershire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Pershore, Worcestershire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Doncaster, Yorkshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Jervale, Yorkshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Pickering, Yorkshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Ravenfer, Yorkshire*, summoned 33 Edw. I. discontinued 12 Edw. III.—*Tykhuil, Yorkshire*, summoned 23 Edw. I. discontinued 24 Edw. I.—*Hallifax, Yorkshire*, summoned during the Commonwealth, when discontinued not known.—*Whitby, Yorkshire*, summoned during the Commonwealth, when discontinued

not known.—*Leeds, Yorkshire*, summoned during the Commonwealth, when discontinued not known.—*Calais, in France*, summoned 27 Hen. VIII. discontinued 3 Ph. and Mary.

To proceed in our detail of the right of representation, we shall begin with the County of Bedford. Here, as in all the county elections, no person has any absolute power over the voters, but still we find a very strong influence prevail, which in general carries the day, and is in most counties aristocratic. In this county the Duke of Bedford can always return one member, and the other seat has been warmly contested between Lord St. John and Lord Ongley.

Bedford Town sent burgesses to parliament 23 Edw. I. This borough had, for near a century, been under the influence of the Bedford family; but in 1768, the corporation, by exerting their right of making honorary freemen, recovered their independence, and kept it for a time; but the Duke of Bedford has again recovered his interest, although the number of voters are 1400. The right of election is in the burgesses, freemen, and inhabitants, being householders, and not receiving alms.

Berks County. Lord Craven's interest prevails here sufficiently to secure the return of one member.

Abingdon sends only one member, and seems to keep itself pretty free from aristocratic influence or corruption. It received its charter, anno 1557, from Phillip and Mary, and the inhabitants, paying scot and lot, to the number of about 600, have the right of election. In 1698, the House of Commons resolved, that the proceedings of William Hucks, Esq. making use of the authority of government to be elected a burgess for the said borough, is a scandalous reflection on government, and tends to subvert the freedom of election. We wish the House of Commons were now to make a few similar resolutions.

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Reading, like its neighbour, has not given up its independence, but has been said to have advanced a little in the paths of corruption. It has sent members since 23 Edw. I. The right of election is in the inhabitants paying scot and lot, and their number about 600.

Wallingford has no great claim to independence, for the ingenious author of the History of the Boroughs tells us, that corruption is here brought to a complete system. The first writ on record is 23 Edw. I. The right of election is in the corporation and inhabitants, to the number of 140.

New Windsor. This borough is peculiarly situated. Near to the royal residence, we are not to wonder that a certain high influence prevails. Windsor was chartered 5 Edw. I. and sent members in the 30th of the same reign. From the 14th Edw. III. the privilege of electing their representatives was intermitted until 25 Henry VI. since which it has regularly returned them. Inhabitants paying scot and lot vote here, to the amount of 280, and the mayor is returning officer. The patron of this borough is too well known.

Buckingham County. The Duke of Portland, and Marquis of Buckingham, have mutually settled the elections for this county, and each appoint one: thus we see that where an aristocracy is suffered to prevail, every right of the people are either directly or indirectly annihilated.

Buckingham Town. This is completely a rotten borough, the corporation consisting of the dependents of the Marquis of Buckingham, who has the sole disposal of the borough. It has sent members in the 11th Edw. III. but discontinued under that king, and the privilege was again resumed 36 Hen. VIII. The voters are only 13, viz. a bailiff, and 12 burgesses.

Aylesbury Town has preserved some degree of independence. It was incorporated the 1st of Mary I. and

the election is in the householders. It is said there is a kind of *silent bargain* made here for votes, and that the candidate, in his canvas, holds up as many fingers as he means to give guineas; and there is said to have been an instance of a certain member having suddenly left the town after his election, without making good his *dumb* promise.

Great Marlow. This borough sent members to parliament several times before 3 Edw. II. and then ceased for 400 years, until restored 21 James I. The right of election is in the inhabitants, paying scot and lot, their number about 200; but as the borough is the joint property of William Clayton and William Lee Antonie, Esqrs. they have no other privilege than voting as those two gentlemen please.

Wendover. This borough has the honour to be bought and sold as often as its master pleases; and a short time before his death, the late Earl Verney sold it to its present possessor, John Baker Church, Esq. The late possessor being opposed by Sir R. Daling, who obtained a majority of votes, the Earl in revenge instantly ejected those who had voted against him out of their houses, and they were obliged to promise good behaviour in future before they were admitted back to their habitations. This borough was represented in the time of Edw. I. but under Edw. II. intermitted sending members, until restored again by James I.

Agmondesham is wholly the property of the Drake family, of Sharnlores, being bought by their ancestor of Charles II. They rule the elections completely, and the father and son are now members. Young Drake has often declared, *he sees no necessity for a reform in parliamentary representation*. This borough is ancient; sent members under Edw. I. and II. and then intermitted, until restored by James I.

[To be continued.]

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CHARACTER OF LUCULLUS.

BY THE MARQUIS D'ARGENSON.

THOSE who know Roman history but imperfectly, do not render sufficient justice to Lucullus. We have heard speak of his magnificence and love of voluptuousness; but we forget the services he did to his country, before he gave himself up to the amusements which sweetened and embellished his retreat. He studied to advantage the belles letters during his youth, became afterwards a statesman, a great general, and, towards the decline of his life, a philosopher. Being a friend to Sylla, he passed over too lightly the cruelties of this dictator, but he was not his accomplice in them. He was executor to his will, and tutor to his son, in preference to Pompey. After having held all the public employments, capable of forming great men, as well at home as abroad, he became at last consul. After his consulship, the government of Cilicia becoming vacant, he had every right to demand it; it was a delicate business, and he would have had much difficulty in succeeding, had he not made Cethegus, tribune of the people, his friend. To obtain which, he found it necessary to apply to Precia the courtesan; he feigned himself in love with her, knowing that this means, employed with address, was the most sure one of succeeding with women. He obtained what he wanted from the lover of his mistress, and little scrupulous about the means he made use of to arrive at his proposed end, he turned all to advantage.

He went into Asia, and by his wise conduct pacified the troops which had rebelled and mutinied, led them on to battle against Mithridates, and greatly embarrassed this formidable enemy of the Romans. At the same time he acquired the friendship of the inhabitants of the conquered provinces; stopped

the depredations committed by the farmers of the revenue, who were for the most part Roman knights, and forced them to ease the people, or at least to regulate with equity the receipt of taxes. This act of justice and moderation did him much honour. Having gloriously executed his first commission, he was some time after sent again towards Asia, and conducted himself with the same prudence and disinterestedness. He found that the true means of conquering Mithridates, was to cut off the provisions from his army, which was immense; this succeeded—he besieged Amisus, which contained the chief riches of the king. He conquered this capital, and the Roman troops found in it a considerable booty. It did not depend upon the general that the army was not as orderly in taking possession of these treasures, as the profit arising from them was great, but he never could obtain this from his soldiers: they were already greatly relaxed in their ancient discipline: nevertheless he thought of pushing still farther his conquests. Mithridates had retired to the dominions of Tigranes, king of Armenia, his son in law; it was there that Lucullus ought to have followed him.

Lucullus found means to disperse the immense armies of Tigranes and his father-in-law, although his own was infinitely inferior. By these means he gave the greatest proof of his knowledge in the art of war. He was enterprising enough to form the siege of Tigranocerta, capital of the kingdom of Armenia: its approaches were defended by an army of near three hundred thousand men: the Roman general dispersed them and looked upon victory as certain the moment he had given a glance at their position. We have them, said he: it was on one of those days

days which the Romans had marked in their calendar as unfortunate, because it had formerly been memorable by defeats: I will put it among the fortunate days, added he; and he did so accordingly. An hundred thousand barbarians fell in the battle which followed, wherein it is said, no more than five Romans were killed, and 100 wounded.

The consequence of this victory was the taking of the capital. The conqueror marched towards Artaxata, the ancient capital of Armenia: he would have taken it, for Mithridates and Tigranes flew before him, making but vain efforts to save it; but the cold being severe, the Roman soldiers loaded with riches, declared openly they would not expose themselves to the rigours of a winter campaign, to gain a triumph less flattering to them than to their general. It was in vain that Lucullus set them the example of braving fatigue as well as danger; his soldiers did not follow him, and he was forced to leave his army inactive, and to renounce the honour of terminating a war so happily begun. During this time, intrigues were carried on at Rome against him, and his successor was named. When the season became favourable, Pompey took the command of the Roman army, easily conquered Tigranes, and forced Mithridates to suicide.

It was then that Lucullus strove to console himself, by leading the most easy and voluptuous life, for the mortifications he had met with in his political and military career. He felt that he had a right to repose, and that he could do nothing better than to make his retreat agreeable; he had moreover, experienced some domestic vexations. He had successively married two wives, whose conduct had given him much pain, and from whom he had been obliged to live separate, although the second was the sister of the austere Cato. He saw that in

Rome both sexes had violated the laws of virtue, honour and decency; it seems as if he had said to himself, "I will think of my personal pleasures only, since I can no longer hope to acquire glory: I will renounce the ambition of gaining the esteem of a people, who does not merit mine."

If Lucullus, loaded with the spoils of Asia, had still been ambitious of acting a great part in Rome, he would have made himself a party there, and have greatly embarrassed Cæsar and Pompey; he would at least have entered the triumvirate like Crassus, and have had more weight in it, because he had more merit; but he preferred the enjoyment of his riches. He built himself magnificent and delightful habitations both in town and country; was profuse in the entertainments he gave to his friends, and to those whom he thought worthy of being admitted into his society. He was noble and generous to others, but without suffering himself to be importuned: he assisted them with his purse and credit, but did not strive to make himself partisans, and required no kind of acknowledgment. He saw with indifference Rome agitated by different factions, took no part therein, and was not persecuted by any of them. He had formed, as a man of taste, collections of books, statues, and other curiosities,—cultivated letters and the sciences: finally, he denied himself no kind of sensual pleasure, but declared that he was not a slave to his passions. If Lucullus appeared to be an Egotist, and if he were actually so, it was because he had been a zealous citizen, a good officer, sufficiently ambitious, and even avaricious of glory. He had learnt, that, in certain countries, and in certain circumstances, when a man has paid to his country his contingency of zeal and services, it is fully permitted, and even wise, to think of nothing but himself.

REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE SOCIETY
OF ANTIQUARIES OF SCOTLAND.
Vol. I.

THIS Society, formed on the same plan of the Antiquarian Society in England, was begun in 1780, by the zeal of the Earl of Buchan, and has flourished greatly. In 1783, upon petition, the King granted them a charter of incorporation, and they have now published their first volume.

We cannot compliment the committee, who have the inspection of the papers to be published, on their judgment in selecting them, for we think if one half at least had been left out, the volume would have been much more valuable; and the plates with which it is *illustrated*, as it is called in the title-page, seem inserted rather to gratify private vanity, than for public use.

We shall subjoin a list of the papers, and select one or two of the best.

An historical account of the Society of the Antiquaries of Scotland. By Mr. William Smellie. An enquiry into the origin of the name of the Scottish nation, presented to the Society of Antiquaries at Edinburgh, December 1780. By Sir James Foulis, of Colinton, baronet. An enquiry into the beverage of the ancient Caledonians, and other northern nations, at their feasts; and of their drinking vessels. By the same. Of the league said to have been formed between the Emperor Charlemagne and the King of Scotland. By the same. Plan for a royal forest of oak in the Highlands of Scotland. By Mr. John Williams, mineral surveyor. Report upon the preceding paper. By Sir Alexander Dick, of Prestonfield, baronet. Account of the parish of Haddington. By the Rev. Dr. George Barclay, of Middleton.

Sect. I. Situation, boundaries, and topographical descriptions of the parish, number of inhabitants, ancient and modern seats, nature of soils, state of agriculture, rivers, bridges, &c. Sect. II. Its antiquity, civil government, police, trade, manufactures, remarkable occurrences, &c. Sect. III. Abbacy of Haddington, parish church of Haddington, and other religious foundations, with the succession of ministers since the reformation, and other particulars relating to ecclesiastical history. Sect. IV. Eminent persons who were natives of the parish of Haddington. Appendix, No. I. Catalogue of pictures at Amisfield. Appendix, No. II. List of the farms and plough-gates in the county of Haddington. Appendix, No. III. Condescendence by Mr. William Law, sheriff-depute of the county of Haddington, of his mode of striking the fairs of that county. Appendix, No. IV. Act of parliament in favor of the town of Haddington, 28 Junii, 1633. Appendix, No. V. The inscriptions upon the monument in the Earl of Lauderdale's aisle upon the north side of the church of Haddington. Appendix, No. VI. Carta Confirmationis, Cartae Prioratus de Haddington per Willicum St. Andreae concessae. Appendix, No. VII. Ex Cartul. Priorat. St. Andr. Richardus de Ecclesia de Hadintona. Observations on the origin of the duni pacis. By Sir James Foulis, of Colinton, baronet. Description of the encampments on the hill of Burnswark. Memoirs of the life of Sir James Stewart Denham, baronet. By the Right Honourable the Earl of Buchan. Account of the parish of Uphall. By the same. An enquiry into the original inhabitants of Britain. By Sir James Foulis, of Colinton, baronet. An historical account of the hammermen of Edinburgh,

burgh, from their records. By William Charles Little, of Libberton, Esq. An account of the magnetic mountain of Cannay. By George Dempster, of Dunichen, Esq. On the offices of Thane and Abthane. By Robert Riddel, of Glenriddel, Esq. An account of a combat between the Macpherfons and the Davidfons. From Sir James Foulis, of Colinton, baronet. An account of the manner in which the Lammas festival used to be celebrated in Mid Lothian, about the middle of the eighteenth century. By James Anderson, L.L.D. A disquisition into the proper arrangement of the silver coins, applicable to the first four James's kings of Scotland. By James Cummyng, Esq. L.A.C. An account of the province of Biscay, in Spain. By the Reverend Dr. John Geddes. An account of the money, coins, and weights, used in England, during the reigns of the Saxon princes. By James Stirling, of Leadhills, Esq. An account of the island of Icolunkill. By the Right Hon. the Earl of Buchan. Of the Roman hasta and pilum; of the brals and iron used by the ancients. By the Rev. Mr. John Grant, minister of Dundurcas. Life of Mr. James Short, optician. By the Right Hon. the Earl of Buchan. Remarks made in a journey to the Orkney Islands. By Principal Gordon, of the Scots college in Paris. A description of an ancient obelisk in Berwickshire: with an engraving. By Roger Robertson, of Ladykirk, Esq. Observations and facts concerning the breed of horses in Scotland in ancient times. By the same. An account of some remains of antiquity in the island of Lewis, one of the Hebrides. By Colin M'Kenzie, Esq. An account of the parish of Liberton, in Mid-Lothian, or county of Edinburgh. By the Rev. Mr. Thomas Whyte, minister of that parish. Appendix, No. I. Chart. I. Charta Alexandri Regis Scotorum Roberto de Walnchop, filio Allani de Waln-

chop. Chart. II. Carta admortizationis facta per Archibaldum Wauchope de Nudrie Merchale. No. II. No. III. Account of the number of souls in the parish of Liberton, taken Autumn 1786. No. IV. Charter, by the city of Edinburgh, to William of Prestoun, of Gourton. No. V. An account of the stipend of Liberton, as allocated on the several lands. No. VI. The tithes of Liberton. No. VII. An account of the christenings in Liberton, from November 28, 1624, until Jan. 1, 1788. An account of the marriages in Liberton. An account of the irregular marriages, from the beginning of 1753 until the end of 1783. An account of the deaths or burials in Liberton. No. VIII. Valuation of the several lands in the parish of Liberton. The valuation of the several Feuers or Feodaries of Stainhouse. No. IX. An enquiry into the expedients used by the Scots before the discovery of metals. By William Charles Little, of Liberton, Esq. Observations on the vision, a poem, first published in the Miscellany, or collection of Scottish poems called the Evergreen—by Allan Ramsay, anno 1724. By William Tytler, of Woodhouselee, Esq. Three Scottish poems, with a previous dissertation on the Scots-Saxon dialect. By the Rev. Dr. Alexander Geddes. Epistle to the president, vice-presidents, and members of the Scottish Society of Antiquaries, on being chosen a correspondent member. By the same. The first Eklog of Virgil, translated into Skottis vers. By the Rev. Dr. Alexander Geddes. The first Idilion of Theokritus, translated into Skottis vers. By the same. Dissertation on the Scottish music. By William Tytler, of Woodhouselee, Esq. On the fashionable amusements and entertainments in Edinburgh in the last century, with a plan of a grand concert of music on St. Cecilia's Day, 1695. By the same. The order of the instrumental music

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VOL. IX.

(1.) *Of the League said to have been formed between the Emperor Charlemagne and the King of Scotland.*

By Sir James Foulis, of Colinton, Bart.

Five or six years ago (anno 1773) two short treatises were published, one denying, and the other affirming, that the King of Scotland had entered into alliance with the Emperor Charlemagne. I will not here enter into the arguments alledged on either side, but only lay before the Society an observation I made on reading the history of those times, and which seems to have escaped the observation of all who have written on that subject.

To the account of the league is added, that the King of Scotland sent his brother William with four thousand men to serve under Charlemagne. This very name, William, made me look on the whole as an idle story, the inconsistency of which confused itself. William is our way of contracting two Saxon words, *gild beame*. These signify a gilded helm, which was an honourable distinction, and like an order of knighthood among the Saxons. Now it seemed highly improbable that a Prince of Scotland should have a Saxon name, or title, in the beginning of the ninth century; and that matters happened so oddly, that this very Prince, with the honours of Saxony in his name or title, should be picked out to serve the Emperor, who made war on the Saxons for above twenty years. But, on reading Fordun's account of the matter, I could not help concluding that the Prince's name was Gilmor. Fordun, not understanding the meaning of the name, gives us several, of which the first is Gilmernus, and goes on running changes upon that word, such as Gilemus, Gilerminus, &c. till at last he comes to Guliemus, and rests there, as if that were the true one; as it was a name that had become familiar, and been rendered domestic in his time. Later writers, as ignorant of the Gaelic as himself, have copied the name William from him; and by this one error deface and disgrace the annals of their country. I was confirmed in my opinion, by what Fordun, in another place, tells of a King of France, (which story he must have had from some French writer or relater) who, speaking of the brave leaders that had served under Charlemagne, among others, mentions the Scoti Gillemore. Fordun's having hit twice so nearly on the true name, which it is plain he did not understand, convinces me that he had taken his account of the fact from proper vouchers, as Gilmor was the only name or title the King's brother could have had. Gille means a lad; or, in composition, Gilmor, literally translated, signifies no more than the Great Lad: but in those days, before foreign titles of honour were introduced,

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must have been specially applied to the King's son or brother; exactly in the same way as *Monsieur* in France, or *Infant* in Spain. Our Highlanders, to express their particular chiefs, insert the name of the clan thus, *Clan Chattan mor*, *Clan o'Duine mor*; and this effectually marks that they are speaking of their chief, though there may be in the clan many men greater than him, in a certain sense, that is, taller or broader than him: but to the King's brother, the title *Gilmor* must have sufficiently marked his rank. I have seen several Irish pieces, in which their national Saint, to whom perhaps more than regal honours were paid, is devoutly addressed by the epithet of *Gille*. We have sufficient instances of the English word *Child* having been used as a title given to the sons of persons of distinction. There is still to be found in Scotland the surname of *Mac-Gillemor*. By the various vicissitudes that time produces, the few that now bear that surname are reduced to the lowest rank of life. Perhaps there may be some people too apt to look with contempt on those, to whose predecessors their predecessors would have humbly paid their court.

The two treatises mentioned above, are said to have been written by Lord Hailes and Lord Elibank. There was also another published by the eminent Doctor Arbuthnot, which I never saw. It seems a point that deserves the care and attention of this Society to procure copies of those three treatises, from which, and from the authorities to which they will direct us, that controverted part of history may perhaps be cleared up, and finally settled.

There was a native of the British Isles, greatly esteemed by the Emperor Charlemagne on account of his learning. Several of his writings have been published. I never saw them; and I believe few now a-days read them: but, as he was once greatly esteemed, and his name is still eminent, some neighbouring countries claim the honour of having given him birth. He had several names, but is most known by that of *Alcuinus Albinus*. Set aside the Latin termination *us*, and there remains *Alcuin Albin*; which, translated into modern English, is literally *Alcuin a Scotch Highlander*. By that name he was known by his contemporaries, and it continues to this day.

(2.) *An Account of the Magnetic Mountain, of Cannay.*

By George Dempster, of Dunnichen, Esq.

You will not be sorry to receive an account of the Magnetic Mountain of Cannay: but perhaps it is not unknown to you already, or you may at least have heard of similar ones in other places. Cannay is an island of ten or twelve miles in circumference, with an excellent harbour in its

bosom. Near this harbour, on a hill of some height, called the *Compass Hill*, there is a little hole dug, about a foot or two in depth. A compass placed in this hole is instantly disturbed, and in a short time veers about to the eastward, till at last the north point settles itself in a due southerly direction, and remains there. At a very little distance from this hole, perhaps on the very edge of it, the needle recovers its usual position.

This singular circumstance was known when Martin wrote his account of these islands, and is taken notice of by him. He indeed says, the compass then settled at due east, which is also curious. What increases the singularity of this alteration in the needle, is a discovery lately made by Hector M'Neil, Esq; tackman of the island. He mentioned the circumstance to us; and Lord Bredalbane, Sir Adam Ferguson, Mr. Isaac Hawkins Brown, and the rest of the company, went to examine the fact. The harbour, on the north side, is formed by a bold rock of Basalt, which may be about half a mile below, and to the southward of the *Compass Hill*, of which this rock is a continuation. We rowed under this rock; and when the boat reached its center, immediately under the rock, and almost touching it, the north point of our compass veered about, and settled at due south and remained there. This experiment was frequently repeated with the same success; but this effect was confined also to a very small part of the rock, which seemed to us directly south from the hole on *Compass Hill*. At a little distance, on either side, the needle recovered its usual position. His Lordship then directed the boat to row with great quickness past the rock, when, upon our crossing the place which had before affected the needle, it was again affected during the passage, though very quick, and recovered soon after passing this point. We could hardly venture to assign any cause for these appearances, but by supposing something magnetical in the rock extending the whole distance from the *Compass Hill* to the head land at the mouth of the harbour. If this should prove to be the case, we had no scruple in pronouncing this to be the largest loadstone as yet discovered in the world.

A part of the rock was broken off, at the very spot where this affection of the needle was observed, and was applied to the compass when removed from the rock; but it seemed to produce no effect upon the needle whatsoever. Also, the compass was carried about the length of the boat from the rock, but in a line with *Compass Hill*; and it was also placed in the same line on the opposite side of the harbour, at about a quarter of a mile's distance: neither of these experiments produced any effect on the needle.

In this island there are many columnar appearances, not unlike to Staffa; and several, both straight and bent, and every way as regular, which seem also to have, like Staffa, escaped observation till very lately.

A GENERAL HISTORY OF INLAND NAVIGATION, FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC: Containing a complete Account of the Canals already executed in England, with Considerations on those projected. To which are added, practical Observations. Illustrated with a Map of the Canals in England, and other useful Plates. By J. Phillips. 4to.

Mr. Phillips, in his preface, makes the following just observations on the utility of inland navigation.

Inland navigation is highly beneficial to trade and commerce, by facilitating the communication between widely distant parts of the kingdom, reducing the price of carriage, and thus enabling the manufacturer to obtain his materials, fuel, and necessaries of life, at a lower rate, to convey his goods to market at a less expence, and consequently to sell cheaper than his competitors. In countries which have the advantage of canals, the old manufactures are rendered more flourishing, and new ones established, from day to day, in situations where the land before was of little value, and but thinly inhabited. They render the countries through which they pass more rich and fertile; since every meadow or pasture which they flow through displays a verdure never seen in the withered and adust spots that are at a distance from the banks of rivers and running waters. The merchants who reside at the ports where they terminate must also derive very considerable advantages from them, as they are enabled by them to export greater quantities of goods from places at a distance from the sea, and to supply with ease a greater extent of inland country with the commodities they import from foreign nations.

There are, perhaps, few objects of internal policy, that have so much called forth the powers and resources of the country, as canals. They have not only been the means of enlarging our foreign commerce, but of giving birth to an internal trade, which, with all the advantages attendant on foreign commerce, has perhaps far exceeded it in extent, value, and importance. So great has been the effect which these canals, and the trade to which they have given birth, have had on our industry, population,

and resources, that in many instances they have entirely changed the appearance of the counties through which they pass.

In the first chapter he discourses further on the utility of canals. and proceeds to give an account of the ancient canals, as those of Egypt, and the great canal designed to pass through the isthmus of Suez. He then describes the canals of China, Hindostan, Russia, Denmark, Sweden, Holland, and France.

A description of these take up the first six chapters, which are as preliminaries to his account of those in England. Among these he classes the canal of Caerdyke and the New River. Then follows a very full account of the Duke of Bridgewater's canal, the Grand Trunk, the Coventry and Oxford, the Staffordshire and Worcestershire, the Birmingham and Fazeley, &c. &c. and having noticed those which are now cutting, or in agitation, he proceeds to those of Scotland and Ireland.

We do not wish to detract from the merit of Mr. Phillips's work; he has certainly taken great pains, and has afforded the public much information; but it is certain he has filled a quarto volume with an immense deal of trifling matter, and has omitted many things which every reader would wish to be acquainted with, as the quantity of goods carried for the years the canals have been in full trade, and many other tables, which might have been formed with very little trouble, and would have afforded great information.

Of these stupendous works, the canals of China, we shall give the following extract.

F. Magaillane assures us that there is a passage by inland navigation from one end of the empire of China to the other, being a space of 600 French leagues, and that a traveller may go this whole distance entirely by canals or rivers, except a single day's journey by land, to cross a mountain; an advantage which this Jesuit, who made the voyage himself, observes, is not to be found in any other kingdom or state in the universe.

The Abbé Grosier observes, that it is recorded in the annals of China, that their emperors gave every encouragement to agriculture, and thought it far superior to gold, silver, or precious stones. One particular deserves notice. About the year 1500 a merchant had opened a mine of precious stones. As soon as it was known, the emperor caused it to be shut, with this observation: "Useless labour causes sterility: a mine of precious stones does not produce corn."

For several of the preceding observations on the canals of China I am indebted to Du Halde: the following are extracted from the *Journey of Louis le Comte*, the Jesuit, who was above ten years a missionary, and travelled through the whole empire of China.

"Although China were not of itself," says he, "so fruitful a country as I have represented it, the canals which are cut through it would be alone sufficient to render it so: but besides their great usefulness in watering the country, and promoting trade, they also add greatly to its beauty. They generally contain a clear, deep, and running water, that glides so softly that it can scarcely be perceived. There is commonly one in every province, which is to it instead of a road, and runs between two banks, built up with flat coarse marble stones bound together by others which are jointed into them.

"One large canal generally runs through every province, and a vast number of smaller ones are cut from that large one, which again are subdivided into still smaller, or rather rivulets, that end at some village or great town: sometimes they discharge themselves into a lake or large pond, from which all the adjacent country is watered; so that these clear and plentiful streams, embellished by a great number of fine bridges, bounded by neat and convenient banks, equally distributed through vast plains, covered with a numberless multitude of boats and barges, and crowned (if I may use the expression) with a prodigious number of towns and cities, whose ditches they fill, and whose streets they form, at once render that country the most fruitful and most beautiful in the world.

"Surprised, and as it were astonished, at so noble a sight, I have sometimes borne a secret envy to China in Europe's behalf, which must own that it can boast nothing in that kind to be compared to the works of the Chinese. What would it be then, if that art which in the wildest and most unlikely places has raised magnificent palaces, gardens and groves, had been employed in that rich land to which nature has been lavish of her most precious gifts!

"The Chinese say their country formerly was totally overflowed, and that by dint of

labour they drained the water by cutting it a passage through these useful canals. If this be true, I cannot enough admire at once the boldness and industry of their workmen, who have thus made great artificial rivers, and from a kind of sea created the most fertile plains in the world.

"It will scarcely be believed that men so ignorant in the principles of physics, and the art of levelling, could bring such works as these to perfection; yet it is certain that these canals were dug by men, for they are usually straight, and their distribution is equal and orderly. There are flood-gates made for the rivers to let in the water, and others to let it out when they are too full; so that it cannot be doubted but that the Chinese are only indebted to their own industry for that great convenience.

"Among all these canals in the southern provinces, one above the rest is called the Great Canal, because it traverses the whole country from Canton, which lies on the southern side, to Peking, situated in the most northerly part of the empire. We need only travel a short day's journey by land to cross the mountain, called Moilin, which on one side bounds the province of Kiamsi. Two rivers rise in this mountain, one of which runs southwards to the sea, and the other northwards as far as the river of Nankin, whence by the yellow river and several canals we may proceed by water to the very mountains of Tartary.

"But since, in this vast extent of ground of above four hundred leagues in length, the earth is not level, or hath not a descent proportionable to the emanation of the waters, it was necessary to construct a great number of sluices. They are called by the name of sluices in the relations of travellers, notwithstanding they are very different from ours; they are rather water-falls, and as it were torrents that are precipitated from one canal into another, and more or less rapid, according to the difference of their level. To cause barks or barges to ascend, they make use of a great company of men, who are maintained for that purpose near the sluice; after they have drawn cables and ropes to the right and left, to lay hold of the bark in such a manner that it cannot escape them, and every cable and rope is made tight, they have several captains, by the help of which they raise it by little and little by exerting the utmost strength of their arms, and employing levers, till they have raised it into the upper canal, in which it may continue its voyage. This labour is tedious, toilsome, and exceedingly dangerous. They would be wonderfully surprised could they behold with what ease and facility one man alone, who opens and shuts the gates of our locks and sluices in Europe, makes the longest and heaviest laden barks and barges securely to ascend and descend.

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"I have observed in some places in China, where the waters of two canals have no communication together; yet for all that they make the boats to pass from one to the other, notwithstanding the level may be different above fifteen feet: to effect which they proceed in this manner: at the end of the canal they have built a double glacis, or sloping bank of freestone, which uniting at the point extends itself on both sides up to the surface of the water. When the bark is in the lower canal, they hoist it up, by the help of capstans, to the plane of the first glacis, so far, till being raised to the point, it falls back again by its own weight along the second glacis (I suppose, instead of falling back again, that it falls forwards) into the water of the upper canal, where it skids away to a considerable distance, like an arrow out of a bow; and they make it descend after the same manner proportionably. I cannot imagine how these barks, being commonly very long and heavy laden, escape being split in the middle, or having their backs broken, when they are poised in the air upon this acute angle; for, considering the length the lever must certainly have a strange effect upon it: yet do I not hear that any accidents happen in consequence of it. I have passed that way several times; and all the precaution they take, when they do not choose to go on shore during the operation, is to tie themselves fast to some cable, or rope, for fear of being tossed from prow to poop (it should be from stern to stern, or from poop to prow).

As the Duke of Bridgewater's canal was not only the first, but on a larger scale, and constructed for larger vessels than any other in England, we shall extract a pretty full account of it.

The first canal, therefore, which claims attention as being the first public work of the kind executed in England, although completed at the expence of a private individual, is that cut by his Grace the Duke of Bridgewater, in whose praise it would be unpardonable to be silent, who, at an age too often spent in dissipation by our young nobility, applied his attention to useful objects, and had the spirit to hazard so great a part of his fortune in an undertaking worthy the pursuit of a prince, which, however, has ultimately proved highly profitable to himself, and beneficial to his country. When the influence of exalted rank and large possessions is thus nobly and usefully exerted, they confer additional lustre on the possessors, who then justly merit being ranked among the first citizens of the community.

His Grace has the Honour, as well as

pleasure, of having first introduced inland navigation into this kingdom; the utility of which is so sensibly known and felt, that it is at length, to the profit and happiness of this country, encouraged by the nobility and land owners in many of the interior parts of the country. It would also be unpardonable to withhold the praise so justly due to the penetration of this illustrious nobleman, for having called forth the hidden talents of a Brindley; talents, which, but for his Grace, would have been utterly lost to his country.

In 1758 and 1759, his Grace the Duke of Bridgewater, after obtaining two acts of parliament for that purpose, projected, began, and executed, under the direction of his engineer, Mr. Brindley, his first canal, which was designed for conveying coals from a mine (or more properly a mountain) on his Grace's estate to Manchester, but has since been applied to many other useful purposes of inland navigation. This canal begins at a place called Worley Mill, about seven computed miles from Manchester, where the Duke has cut a basin capable of holding, not only all his boats, but a great body of water which serves as a reservoir, or head of his navigation. The canal runs through a hill, by a subterraneous passage, big enough for the admission of long flat-bottomed boats, which are towed by hand-rails on each side, near three quarters of a mile under ground to the coal-works. There the passage divides into two channels; one of which goes five hundred yards to the right, and the other as many yards to the left, and both may be continued at pleasure.

The passage is in some places cut through the solid rock, and in others arched over with brick. Air funnels, some of which are thirty-seven yards perpendicular, are cut at certain distances, through the rock to the top of the hill. The arch at the entrance is about six feet wide, and about five feet high above the surface of the water. It widens within, so that in some places the boats may pass each other; and at the pit is ten feet wide. The coals are brought to this passage or canal in little low waggons, that hold nearly a ton each; and as the work is on the descent, are easily pushed or pulled along, by a man on a railed way, to a stage over the canal, and then shot into one of the boats, each of which holds seven or eight tons. They then, by means of the rails, are drawn out by one man to the basin at the mouth (a boy of seventeen years of age has worked twenty-one of these boats at a time, which at seven tons each, the lowest quantity is one hundred forty-seven tons brought out of the pit to the basin at the entrance); then five or six of them are linked together, and drawn along the canal by a single horse, or two mules, on the banks or towing-paths: it is there
broad

broad enough for the barges to pass or go abreast; and in the course of nine miles (a circuit of two miles being made in seeking a level) the canal reaches Manchester. The canal is raised over public roads by means of arches; and where it is too low for a carriage to go under, the road is lowered with a gentle descent, and ascends on the other side: it is thus carried over the navigable river Irwell, and nearly forty feet above it; so that large vessels in full sail pass under the canal as under a large lofty bridge, whilst the Duke's barges are at the same time passing over them.

It may be proper here particularly to describe the noble aqueduct which carries this canal over the river Irwell. This stupendous work was begun at a place called Worsley Mill, about seven miles from Manchester, where, at the foot of a large mountain, which proves to be composed of coal, the Duke has cut a basin capable of containing all his boats, and a great body of water, which serves as a reservoir or head to his navigation. At Barton-bridge, three miles from the basin, begins this aqueduct, which, for upwards of two hundred yards, conveys the canal across a valley; and also above forty feet above the navigable river Irwell: there are also stops at each end, that may occasionally be drawn up, and let off the whole body of water, which is easily done by drawing a plug, and discharging the water into the Irwell, through a wooden tube. There are many of these stops or flood-gates so constructed, that should any of the banks give way, and thereby occasion a current, they will rise by that motion, and prevent the damage that would otherwise happen by the waters overflowing the country.

This bridge unites the Lancashire and Cheshire parts of the Duke's navigation; it is carried over the meadows on each side the river Mersey, and quite across Sale moor, at incredible labour and expence. Mr. Brindley caused trenches first to be made, and then placed deal balks in an upright position, from thirty to thirty-six feet long, backing and supporting them on the outside with other balks laid lengthways, and in rows, and screwed fast together, driving in some thousands of oak piles of different lengths between them; and on the front side he threw the clay and earth, and rammed them well together to form his navigable canal. After thus finishing forty yards, he removed the balks and proceeded again as before, where it was designed to continue the canal.

The bridge for the aqueduct over the river Irwell, is built all of stone of great strength and thickness. Every stone in the faces has five square beds and sides, well jointed and cramped with iron cramps. There are three arches over the river Irwell, which, with their piers, are all of hewn

stone, of the largest dimensions, and cramped in the same manner as the others. The centre arch is sixty-three feet wide, and thirty-eight feet high above the water, and will admit the largest barges, which navigate the Irwell, to go through with masts and sails standing.

At Stretford, three miles from hence, was the caisson, forty yards long by thirty-two broad. Open bottomed boats were employed to carry and discharge loads of earth, and thereby raise the ground where the level required: these were employed in the caissons, as the ground they passed over lay sixteen or eighteen feet below the surface of the canal: they carried about eighteen tons, which, with great ease, was shot out in an instant where wanted.

At Combroke, three miles further, is a circular wear to raise the water of the canal to its proper height: the surplus flows over the nave of a circle in the middle of the wear, built of stone, into a well, and by a subterraneous tunnel is conveyed to its usual channel: there is also a machine to wash the slack, which is worked by water.

In order to feed that end of the navigation which is near Manchester, Mr. Brindley raised, and as it were swallowed up, the river Medlock, by a large beautiful wear, composed of six segments of a circle, built of square stone, bedded in terras, and every stone cramped with iron: the whole circumference is three hundred and sixty-six yards, with a circular nave of stone in the middle. The water, when at a proper height to supply the navigation, flows over the nave, and down the well as at Combroke; but in order to keep the bed dry during the time the workmen were building this wear, he turned off the greater part of the water by a cut through the rock, and invented an engine, which he called a spoon, and which he worked, at the end of a lever, by a horse. When this spoon dips into the water, a kind of flap door, made of leather, is pressed open, and admits the water till full; and on being weighed up the pressure of the water within closes the door, and, as the lever rises, it runs off into a channel cut at the end of the spoon handle.

From the wharf at this place, the poor of Manchester fetch great quantities of coals in wheel-barrows, at three-pence half-penny a hundred weight of seven score, which is not one half the price which was before paid for that necessary article. But Mr. Brindley, to remove the inconvenience of carrying them up Castle-hill has driven up a large tunnel through the centre of this hill, into which the barges are introduced; and by a crane, which is worked by a box water-wheel of thirty feet diameter, and four feet four inches wide, they are landed close to the town. This branch of the canal to Manchester is very near ten miles in length, and has been executed, on an

average,

average, at the expence of a thousand guineas a mile.

ANECDOTES OF THE RIGHT HON.

WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM, and of the principal Events of his Time. With his Speeches in Parliament, from the Year 1736 to 1778. 4to. 2 Vols. 1l. 10s. Jordan. 1792.

The writer of this, judiciously avoids offering this work as a history, but only as a fund of materials and information, which may guide the future historian in relating the great events in which this celebrated statesman was concerned. It is not, however, the intention of our author to give every occurrence of the Earl's life, but rather to select such as are not related in other works, and to correct any error they may have fallen into.

We have but few anecdotes of the early part of Mr. Pitt's life, and we have here only his public transactions.

Of the disputes concerning the education of the Prince of Wales, we have the following account.

Upon the death of Frederick, Prince of Wales, the education of the Prince (George III.) had been committed to Lord Harcourt as governor; to Dr. Hayter, Bishop of Norwich, as preceptor; and to Andrew Stone, Esq. brother to the primate of that name, as sub-governor; recommended by the Duke of Newcastle; and to Mr. Scott, as sub-preceptor; recommended by Lord Bollingbroke. In about a year and a half, a disagreement broke out amongst them, of a very interesting nature. It was said by the friends of Leicester-house, that the governor and preceptor did not discharge the duties of their trust with alacrity. But it came out afterwards, that this complaint lay deeper than was at first supposed. There were two persons concerned in this affair, whom it is proper to mention particularly. Mr. Stone was the most particular friend and adviser of the Duke of Newcastle. The other, Mr. Murray, afterward Lord Mansfield, was in precisely the same situation, and degree of credit, with Mr. Pelham. Between Mr. Stone and Mr. Murray there subsisted the warmest intimacy; not only their friendships, but their principles and politics were perfectly congenial. Lord Bute, who had been Lord

of the Bedchamber to the late Prince, and was continued in the family, gained a superior influence, by assiduity and attention. He was moreover favoured by the Princess. The reserve of Lord Harcourt, and the very orderly demeanour of the Bishop, gave great advantage, as well as opportunity, to Lord Bute, who excelled in the assumption of theatrical grace and gesture; which, added to a good figure, rendered his conversation particularly pleasing, and at length created a partiality in his favour. The Duke of Newcastle and Mr. Pelham had information of every circumstance at Leicester-house. In a little time, the Bishop found some very improper books put into the hands of the Prince. He complained of this matter to the Duke of Newcastle. And in a few days Lord Harcourt and the Bishop resigned. From the period of making this counter complaint, it became a struggle between the party of Leicester-house, and the Pelhams, which should have the power of educating the Prince. While this dispute was going on, a third party (the Bedfords) interfered for the same purpose, by attacking Stone and Murray. These gentlemen were charged with being Jacobites. Lord Ravenworth brought the charge. A committee of the Privy Council was directed to enquire into it. The committee sat several times upon it: but the two confidants had the address to acquit themselves; though Mr. Fawcett, Recorder of Newcastle, swore to their having drank the Pretender's health several times.

On the 22d of March, 1753, the Duke of Bedford made the following motion in the House of Lords: "That an humble address be presented to his Majesty, that he would be graciously pleased to give orders, that there be laid before this House the several examinations of the Lord Ravenworth, the Dean of Durham, Mr. Fawcett, the Lord Bishop of St. Asaph, the Lord Bishop of Gloucester, the Honourable Mr. Murray, his Majesty's Solicitor General; Andrew Stone, Esq. and such other examinations upon oath, as have been taken before the Lords appointed by his Majesty to enquire into informations of a very material nature, relating to a person in the service of their Royal Highnesses the Prince of Wales and Prince Edward; and the other persons mentioned in the course of the said examinations, likewise all letters and papers relative thereto, and the report made by their Lordships to his Majesty thereupon." But the Duke of Newcastle, and the rest of the Ministry, were against the motion; and therefore it was negatived. Lord Harcourt said in the debate, that he found he had no authority over the Prince's education; nor could he be of any service, unless the sub-governor and others (Scott and Cresset) were dismissed, all of whom he had strong reasons to believe were Jacobites,

bites, and therefore he had resigned. The Pelhams thought they had gained their point, in the protection of Stone and Murray, and in appointing Lord Waldegrave and the primate to succeed the resigners; while the fact was, they were deceived and betrayed by their own people. By this secret manœuvre, the influence and ascendancy of Lord Bute were completely established. At that time was circulated by the Bedford party a remarkable paper, entitled, "A Memorial of several Noblemen and Gentlemen of the first rank and fortune." And in the weekly paper, called the *Proteſter*, (printed in small folio, like the *North Briton*, Auditor, &c. and which seems to be the paper alluded to by Lord Melcombe, in his *Diary*, pp. 235 and 236) number fifteen, September 8, 1753, after saying a good deal about Stone, are these words, "And whatever may be the misgivings and repinings of those who expected a kingdom of their own, and who now see themselves for ever excluded, *those* who have the forming of the *youth*, have reason to promise themselves a like ascendancy over the *man*."

This business being settled, Leicester-house went on as it pleased. Stone and Murray, and Lord Bute, were in perfect union: not indeed ostensibly, but confidentially. And in a very little time, (that is before the war broke out) Lord Bath paid his court to Lord Bute, and was admitted of his cabinet. From this time may be dated that unhappy and dangerous idea, which Lord Bute had imbibed, of forming a double cabinet. He had it from Lord Bath, who told him, the official men ought never to be trusted with information of any measure, until it was given them to execute. They were the servants, he said, of the executive power, not the power itself. This extraordinary doctrine will appear more fully, if the letters at Fonthill are printed; for Mr. Alderman Beckford was one of those, who at this time paid their devoirs at Leicester-house.

After Stone and Murray had been acquitted by the Privy Council, very little attention was paid to Leicester-house, or its concerns, by the Pelhams, or their Whig friends. In a very few years, the ideas of a separate interest, and of a separate party, were become perfectly visible at Leicester-house.

The much-lamented death of George II. and the subsequent transactions, our author paints with great ability.

Unfortunately for the war, but more unfortunately for Great-Britain, on the 25th of October, 1760, the venerable George the Second died. The circumstances of his death are too well known to be repeated

here. As to the successor, the effects of the wickedness of his advisers have been, and are still, too deeply felt, to be described in any terms adequate to the injuries committed. Posterity, in a subsequent age, when truth may be spoken, and the motives of men laid open, will be astonished at the conduct of their ancestors at this period.

Two days after the King's accession, the Earl of Bute was introduced into the Privy Council; and at the same time, the name of the Duke of Cumberland was struck out of the Liturgy. Another circumstance not less remarkable immediately succeeded; this was, Lord Bute was made Ranger of Richmond Park, in the room of the Princess Amelia, who was turned out.

It was the fixed design of the party, which the new King brought with him from Leicester-house, to remove the Ministers and conclude the war; but the tide of popularity ran so strong in favour of both, they were obliged to postpone the execution of their design, until they had prepared the nation to receive it. For this purpose a great number of writers were employed, to calumniate the late King, the Duke of Cumberland, Mr. Pitt, and all the Whigs.

The late King was reviled for the affection he had shewn to his native country, for his love of female society, and for his attachment to the Whigs.

The Duke was charged with inhumanity; he was stiled "a Prince that delighteth in blood;" because the Princess of Wales had some time ago conceived a jealousy of his popularity. Nothing could be more unjust than this suspicion: there was not a person in the kingdom more firmly attached to the rights of her son.

The Whigs were called Republicans, although many of them had exhausted their fortunes in support of the Monarchy.

But Mr. Pitt was the principal object of their calumny. He was assailed in pamphlets, in newspaper essays, and in every other channel of conveyance to the public. The war upon the continent, was called his German war; his former opposition to German measures, was contrasted with his present conduct; the expences of former wars were compared with the present war. The ruin of the country, the annihilation of all public credit, were predicted and deplored, as the inevitable consequences of the present unjust, impolitic, and impracticable war; for although it was successful, yet they affirmed, that every victory, and every conquest, was a fresh wound to the kingdom. Mr. Pitt's thirst for war, they said, was insatiable; his ambition knew no bounds. He was madly ruining the kingdom with conquests.

By the conquest of Canada, they affirmed, that all had been obtained, that justice

gave

gave us a right to demand; every subsequent conquest, they affirmed, was not only superfluous, but unjust; that it was now perfect suicide to go on conquering what must be surrendered; they wept over our victories. The nation, they said, was destroying itself. At the same time, they held out flattering and false pictures of the enemy's strength and resources.

Smollet, Mallet, Francis, Home, Murphy, Mauduit, and many others, were the instruments employed upon this occasion. It has been said, that the King paid to these, and other hired writers, during the first three years of the reign of George the Third, exceeded thirty thousand pounds. And the printing charges amounted to more than twice that sum. In facilitating the views of the party, the money was well laid out; for the nation was completely duped. And as to the few, who might attempt to undeceive the public, there was a political Judge ready to punish their temerity.

A person at this time, (thirty years subsequent) may very rationally ask, if there were any Englishmen weak enough to give credit to these base assertions. The question indeed is natural. And if the answer corresponds with truth, it must be confessed, that such was the industry used in writing and circulating these doctrines, that the new King's faction, in a short time, had their defenders in every town and village in the kingdom.

The war indeed went on; and though the conquests and victories were not less brilliant than heretofore, the expence was continually urged as a matter of more importance than the advantage.

The unanimity of Parliament was not yet disturbed. As the ensuing session was the last session of the present Parliament, the King's party thought it most prudent to postpone any attacks, in either House, until the new Parliament was elected. The session commenced on the 18th of November, 1760, and closed on the 19th of March, 1761.

The Parliament was immediately dissolved.

And on the same day, Mr. Legge was dismissed.

Upon the dismissal of Mr. Legge, the whole Ministry ought immediately to have resigned. A measure of such union and spirit, must have had the happiest effects. The new King's favourite would have been checked in his design of seizing upon the kingdom; and the King himself would have been convinced, that the Tory principles inculcated at Leicester-house, though amusing in theory, were mischievous in practice.

Two days after the dismissal of Mr. Legge, Lord Holdernesse resigned, upon condition of having a large pension secured

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to him, and the reversion of the Cinque Ports. Lord Bute, in whose favour this resignation was purchased, was instantly appointed Secretary of State in his room: and he made Mr. Charles Jenkinson his confidential commis

It was now obvious to every understanding, that there was an end of that unanimity which had for some years so happily and so honourably prevailed in Council, and in Parliament. The resolution of the new King's faction, to change the Ministry, was now perceptible to every man, who had not lost his penetration in that torrent of popularity, which was artfully managed to absorb all considerations, in the most extravagant eulogies on the found wisdom of the King, and the immaculate virtues of his mother.

The faction further contrived to amuse the people with two other circumstances this year. One was the King's marriage; the other, his coronation; which gave them opportunity to proceed in their measures, unobserved by the nation.

George the Second's character is well drawn, and we think with justice.

This Prince, though not born in this country, was educated in those principles by which the nation rose to power and happiness, and gloried in being the King of a free people. He carried the power and commerce of the nation to a degree to which they had never till then attained. Abroad, he established the importance, the honour, and dignity of his crown, upon a footing not known before his time to a king of this country, and made the name of Englishmen respectable in every corner of the world. No foreign power trifled with his resentment, or despoiled his people with impunity. It hath been said that he had prejudices; and the assertion, from the mouths of Tories and Jacobites, should not surprise us. The nation was benefited by the prejudices of this Prince. Abroad, they operated against the natural enemies of the kingdom; at home, against the enemies of the national freedom, and of the protestant establishment made at the revolution: against those who preferred the odious tyrannical government of the race of Stuart, to the mild and legal government of the House of Hanover; against those who held to the divine, indefeasible, hereditary right of princes, and to the slavish doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance; those men who, when in possession of power, in every instance, have driven hard to the destruction of England; and from whose pernicious process this country hath been more than once saved by almost miraculous interposition.

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If he headed a party, it was the most glorious of all parties—the national freedom; if he encouraged and supported a particular set of men, it was those who distinguished themselves most in their attachment to that cause; if he were averse to another set, he was only averse to them as public men; averse to their being in the first departments of the State, because their maxims of government were incompatible with the happiness of his people; and when he did employ them, which he did more frequently than they deserved to have been, he took care to put it out of their power to practise their mischievous principles, by distributing them chiefly among the subaltern officers of the State, and by keeping a sufficient number of Whigs in the higher departments to watch and over-rule their pernicious projects. If he loved war, he made not his own subjects the devoted objects of his vengeance. Foreign, national, natural, manly war, upon British principles, in defence of British rights, he indeed entered into, prosecuted with ardour, and reaped the most glorious consequences from, for this country. He was honest, wise, brave, and liberal. Capable of opening his heart to new connections, he did not contract and give it up to one man; but when the voice of his people demanded it, he yielded up the object of his choice, and received the object of theirs to his bosom. The greatest of his favourites, if he ever had any in the criminal sense of that term, were made to yield. Sir Robert Walpole and the Duke of Newcastle, who, by long lives of useful service, had well earned the favour of this monarch; had each their favourite measures, and at different periods were compelled to sacrifice an excise scheme, and a few bill, and finally their places, to the demands of his people. He received Mr. Pitt from the people, as the gift of the people; and when the public good required a sacrifice of that resentment which had been excited in his mind by the parliamentary conduct of that person, who had opposed his best and most favoured servants with unusual violence, he made it with manliness and dignity.

We think we see the real character of Lord Chatham in the following anecdotes.

Mr. Pitt's first proposition, was the exclusion of Lord Anson from the cabinet. The Duke of Newcastle pleaded earnestly to have Lord Hardwicke in the cabinet. He said it was the King's request. Mr. Pitt consented, on condition that Sir Robert Henley had the Great Seal: this stipulation was desired by Leicester-house.

Lord Temple to be Privy Seal. Himself Secretary of State, as before. The Duke of Newcastle offered Lord Temple the Treasury. Mr. Pitt interposed, and said, "that could not be; his Grace must go there himself. But if at any time hereafter he should think proper to retire, Lord Temple should succeed him." Having gone on some time, in making the arrangements, the Duke said, "What shall we do with Mr. Fox?" Mr. Pitt replied, "He may have the Pay-office." This was a triumph to Mr. Pitt—to put Mr. Fox below him, and into the office he had left. But it was a triumph too diminutive for the dignity of Mr. Pitt's mind. However, he enjoyed it; which shews the influence of little passions in men of the first abilities. Lord Anson was proposed for the Admiralty. Mr. Pitt declared, that Lord Anson should never have the correspondence. The Duke replied, that would be such an alteration of the Board, as could not be made without his majesty's consent. Here the conference broke off. Mr. Pitt had an audience of the king. He laid before his majesty the difference between the Duke of Newcastle and himself, concerning the Admiralty. The king consented, that the correspondence with the naval officers, usually in the Board of Admiralty, should be given to Mr. Pitt, and that the Board should only sign the dispatches, without being privy to their contents. It was at this audience that the following remarkable words were spoken, which Lord Nugent repeated in the House of Commons in the year 1784; Mr. Pitt said, "Sire, give me your confidence, and I will deserve it." The king replied without hesitation, "Deserve my confidence, and you shall have it." Lord Nugent added, "that Mr. Pitt at last won upon the king, that he was able to turn his very partialities in favour of Germany to the benefit of his country." Lord Anson took the Admiralty, under Mr. Pitt's limitation; and Mr. Fox took the Pay-office. Mr. Legge had the Exchequer. All the arrangements being settled, the parties all kissed hands in July 1757; and this nation was thereby restored to tranquillity and satisfaction.

On the whole, this work endeavours to establish the opinion, that if Mr. Pitt, or rather the Earl of Chatham, was really as great a minister as his panegyrists would have us believe, yet that he was a much greater tyrant; and it is written in a style of great boldness and energy.

P O E T R Y.

AUGUST.

THE garden blooms with vegetable gold,
And all Pomona in the orchard glows,
Her racy fruits now glory in the sun,
The wall-enamour'd flower in fassion blows,
Gay annuals their spicy sweets unfold;
To cooling brooks the panting cattle run:
Hope, the forerunner of the farmer's gain,
Visits his dreams and multiplies his grain.

More hot it grows, ye fervors of the sky
Attend the Virgin—lo! she comes to hail
Your sultry radiance---now the God of
day
Meets her chaste star---be present Zephyr's
gale

To fan her bosom---let the breezes fly
On silver pinions to salute his ray;
Bride of his soft desires, with comely grace
He clasps the Virgin to his warm embrace.

The reapers now their shining sickles bear,
A band illustrious and the sons of health!
They bend, they toil across the wide
champaign,
Before them Ceres yields her flowing
wealth;

The partridge-covey to the copse repair
For shelter, sated with the golden grain,
Bask on the bank, or thro' the clover run,
Yet safe from fetters and the slaughtering
gun.

Courtly Augustus, whom the bards rever'd,
Patron of science, and the genial arts,
Nam'd this fair month, which permanent
shall give

Long as his bright idea in our hearts,
And lasting as the monument he rear'd!
Like him, ye Princes would ye long
survive

Thro' time's successive æras, thus bestow,
Like him, those bounties, whence your
honours flow.

SEPTEMBER.

FAREWEL the pomp of Flora! vivid
scene!

Welcome sage autumn, to invert the
year---

Farwel to summer's eye-delighting green!
Her verdure fades---autumpal blasts are
near.

The silky wardrobe now is laid aside,
With all the rich regalia of her pride.

And must we bid sweet Philomel adieu?
She that was wont to charm us in the
grove?

Must nature's livery wear a sadder hue,
And a dark canopy be stretch'd above?
Yes---for September mounts his ebony
throne,

And the smooth foliage of the plain is gone,
Libra, to weigh the harvest's pearly store,
The golden balance poises now on high,
The calm serenity of Zephyr o'er,
Sol's glittering legions to th' equator fly,
At the same hour he shews his orient head,
And, warn'd by Thetis, sinks in Ocean's
bed.

Adieu ye damask roses, which remind
The maiden fair-one how her charms
decay;
Ye rising blasts, oh! leave some mark be-
hind,
Some small memorial of the sweets of
May.

Ah! no---the ruthless season will not hear
Nor spare one glory of the ruddy year.

No more the waste of music sung so late
From every bush, green orchestra of love,
For now their winds the birds of passage
wait,

And bid a last farewell to every grove!
While those, whom shepherd swains the
sleepers call,
Chuse their recess in some sequester'd wall.

Yet still shall sage September boast his
pride,
Some birds shall chant, some gayer
flowers shall blow,
Nor is the season wholly unallied
To purple bloom; the halier fruits shall
grow,
The stronger plants, such as enjoy the cold,
And wear a livelier grace by being old.

TO CONTENTMENT.

OCCASIONED

BY READING THE INVALUABLE
LINES OF LAURA MARIA.

"Who can un pitying see the flow'ry race
"Shed by the morn their new-flush'd
bloom resign
"Before the parching beams? so fade the
fair."
THOMSON.

HAIL lov'd content! thou gentle maid
To whom my tribute now is paid---
With thee, oh let me ever dwell
In active life, or gloomy cell,
Where contemplation sweeter refin'd
Exerts her influence o'er the mind.
Do thou within my bosom reign,
Restore its pleasure, soothe its pain;
And teach my reason long to know
The source from whence our pleasures flow.
The former sorrows then forgot,
And inward peace my future lot---
But not allow'd, do thou prepare
A frame of mind each ill to bear;

Yet why complain when Laura's muse
Such plaintive sorrow can infuse;
Whose tender language whilst I read
By sympathy my heart can bleed.
May thou, content, her voice attend,
And be the woe-born damsel's friend.
In vain the painful sigh's repress'd,
Without thou beamest in the breast.
'Tis vain to dry the pearly tear,
Without Content is dwelling there,

Fancy shall draw this pensive maid,
For whom I feel, in worth array'd;
Then let me view the morn of life,
When dawn'd her hopes, uncheck'd by
strife---

How smoothly waft the ambient gale?
Nor does the think her joys will fail.
But sad reverse! maturer age
A different prospect must engage.
Then sorrows and a thousand ills,
Her mind with deep affliction fills.
The anxious heart depriv'd of rest,
For ever mourns its hopes depress'd;
But thou, fair nymph, can teach the mind
To bear its pain, and be resign'd;
Or give the aching breast repose
To mitigate its bleeding woes.
May thou, Maria, torn by grief,
From meditation find relief.
Though 'twas possess'd a friendly power
Of mine to soothe, each ling'ring hour,
With pleasure would I act the part,
And strive to heal Maria's heart.
For now to thee no more are seen
Enchanting prospects, ring'd with green;
No more enjoy'd the daisied fields,
When nature's charms to sorrow yields;
No more delight the seasons bring,
Nor all the beauties of the spring---
Which sweet affail admiring eyes---
Yet each of these too fading dies.
Let misers chuse a life of care,
But let my heart esteem the fair;
With pity's tender warmth benign,
To make their sorrows ever mine.

Ah, Laura, soon will life be o'er,
And thy afflictions be no more;
When thou exempt from mortal pain,
Shall cease for ever to complain.
'Tis only here thy sorrows cleave
For Virtue lives beyond the grave.
Chebbire. EDWY.

L I N E S

ADDRESSED TO MISS B---N.

SAY, dear rose, why thus deprest?
Ah! why that look so full of woe!
What sorrow heaves thy swelling breast,
Big with the soul-afflicting throes?

Thy tears, which deepest anguish speak,
Must surely from the soul arise;
They pale the roses on thy cheek,
And dim the lustre of thine eyes.

Alas! I fear some cruel youth,
With vows of love has won thy heart;
And swerving from his promised truth,
Triumphant play'd the ruffian's part--

If so, may on his coward face
Be stamped the mark of glaring shame,
Black as the heart he must possess,
Who thus can wound thy tender frame.

O D E.

FROM B. I. OF HORACE.

Vitas bimulco me, &c.

CHLOE, thou fliest me like the fawn
That swiftly bends along the lawn,
(Startling at ev'ry thing it sees,
And trembling at each fanning breeze:)
To seek its anxious doe ---
No cruel Afric lion I,
No tiger that thou need'st to fly;
Come, come away from mamma's arms,
Let me be happy in thy charms,
And no more coynefs show.

T H E A T R I C A L I N T E L L I G E N C E.

THE Summer Theatre in the Hay-market closed, as usual, on the 15th. Nothing new has been exhibited on that stage since our last.

The King's Theatre opened on the 15th, but has not yet produced any novelty.

Covent-Garden Theatre, which has been rebuilt, opened on Monday the 17th, with a new prelude; but on account of an advance in price, and a removal of the upper gallery, the riot was so great, that not one word could be heard of the prelude, and very little of the play. At last Mr. Lewis came forward, and promised that an upper gallery should be immediately erected; this quieted the audience as to the demand of the two shilling gallery, the dispute respecting the advanced price remains still to be settled.

The following is an account of the alterations made in the theatre.

The amphitheatre is entirely new, and contains three rows, or, as they are now called, circles of boxes, and a gallery surrounding the whole. The form or plan is that of a truncated ellipse, or an egg flattened at one end, the effect of which upon the sound (not always to be determined by rule) is certainly good. The front of the stage advances something more than the old one into the pit, and is in a straight line; the seats in the pit are parallel to the orchestra. The orchestra is very roomy, and more commodious than the old one, having a place for an organ, and the floor on an arch, so contrived as to assist the general sound. At each end of the orchestra the
pit

pit is continued under the side-boxes. The first circle of boxes is by a new contrivance continued round the house. The boxes are separated from each other by partitions, that are low in front, and rise behind, and are placed in a new direction. They are lined and ceiled with wainscot, and are not papered, for the advantage of sound; they are coloured red, their fronts project to accommodate those who sit in the front rows. The new contrivance separates the first row of the front boxes from the back rows by partitions, and a passage of communication. The second and third circles of boxes are continued round the theatre, and differ from those below only in respect to their height. The gallery crowns the whole, and is continued round the theatre. The seats are considerably elevated, so as to give a complete uninterrupted view of the stage.

The general effect is that of a small theatre, and it is not calculated to hold many more than the old one. Every part of it is lined with the thinnest board, painted in water-colours, as a means whereby the sound may come improved to the ear. The ceiling is painted as a sky, the opening to which is surrounded by a balustrade, supported by enriched frames, which have their bearings on the walls and on the proscenium. The proscenium is composed of pilasters and columns of the Corinthian order, fully enriched, having between them the stage doors, over which are the balcony boxes. In the entablature to the order, is introduced the old motto, *Veluti in speculam*; and over the entablature is a cove,

enriched with antique foliage, on each side of the royal arms. The soffit of the entablature forms the founding-board to the proscenium, and the cove is calculated to throw the voice forwards. The boxes have swelling fronts, supported by comfotes. All columns, or other supports, are avoided. The decorations are of white and gold colours, on a pearl ground.

Round every circle of boxes, and to the gallery, are very spacious corridors, accessible by roomy stair-cases. In Hart-street a very large building has been erected for the scene-painters, scene-rooms, green-rooms, dressing-rooms, &c. Through this building is a private entrance for the royal family to the stage-box. The stage-door and box-office are also in an additional building in Hart-street.

The whole of the avenues to the theatre have been much altered and improved. The principal and new entrance is in Bow-street, under an antique Doric portico, leading through a large and spacious saloon, handsomely fitted up, and warmed with stoves, to the lower circle of boxes, and to a double stair-case that leads to the upper boxes. In Bow-street, the old way to the gallery is preserved.

From the piazza, in Covent-Garden, the old box entrance is preserved, leading by the front boxes round the house, and to the old coffee-room, which likewise remains. It leads also by a new and roomy stair-case to all the circles of boxes. A new entrance is made to the pit, and a new double stair-case up to the gallery. The piazza to Hart-street no longer continues a thoroughfare.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Paris.

ON the 2d instant, intelligence of the investment of Verdun was first received in Paris. The Ministers, anticipating the alarm, which the disclosure of such intelligence would produce, procured a decree to be passed by the community, authorizing them to close all the barriers of Paris. The citizens then assembled in the Champ de Mars, and with one voice Paris seemed to devote itself for service against the enemy.

Many of these persons, accustomed to watch over and detect attempts made against their cause in Paris, lamented the alternative of remaining in the city, when the opportunities for actual service were without it; or of suffering the capital to remain without its guard, upon the enemies within its walls.

A dreadful resolution was then taken; and the phrenzied populace divided into parties.

The prisons were first visited, and the doors of these were very soon forced.

After liberating those who were confined for debt, and small misdemeanors, the remainder, imprisoned for alledged crimes against the state, were put to the sword one by one, as they were let out of the prison.

All the clergy detained for some time past at the Carmes, in the Rue Vaugirard, amounting to 161, were brought into the Convent Garden, two by two, and instantly dispatched. Abbé Sicard alone, who was but slightly suspected, was saved by the explanations of a M. Monnot: M. Montmorin, the late governor of Fontainebleau, was killed while two of the National Assembly stood over him. Madame Lamhalle, half sister of the Duke of Orleans, and niece to the King of Sardinia, is also in the list of sufferers. An ex-bishop, and Cardinal Roachefoucault, were among the number slain.

It was at two o'clock, on Sunday afternoon, that three alarm guns were fired; the tocsin was sounded, and the general was beat. From seven o'clock, on that evening,

evening, to day-break, on Monday, slaughter pervaded Paris.

On Monday at twelve o'clock the tumult continued with little diminution. The National Assembly, the public offices, the treasury, during all these horrors, were unviolated.

To add to the sufferings and catastrophe of the unfortunate prisoners, a mock trial was instituted in the different prisons, consisting of twelve persons—after examining the jailor's book, and asking different questions, these massacring judges placed their hands upon the head of the prisoner, and said, "Do you think that in your consciences we can release this gentleman?" This word *release* was his condemnation. When they answered "Yes," the accused person was set at liberty in appearance, and immediately dashed upon the pikes of the surrounding assassins. If they were judged innocent, they were released amidst the shouts of "*Vive la Nation!*"—but there were not many who were thus adjudged.

DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

By the Scorpion sloop of war, Capt. Hollowell, arrived at Portsmouth, there is intelligence that a dreadful hurricane happened at Antigua on the 1st of August. Several plantations were entirely destroyed, and a great number of negroes, with their huts, &c. washed away. Several merchant vessels in English Harbour were greatly damaged. The hurricane, it is said, was nearly general throughout the West India islands.

In the storm at St. Kitt's, on the 1st of August, the ship Britannia, Captain Wood-year, with 630 hogheads of sugar and rum, and some cotton, was lost, and with her perished 22 people, among whom were the Captain, Mrs. Moore, her two sons, and brother, passengers. The ship *Isabella*, belonging to Messrs. Dennistoun and Mac Lachlan, laden with sugar; the brig *George* and *Margaret*, Ashington, laden with sugar; a schooner of Mr. Waddy's; and a sloop of Messrs. Clifton and King's, were also lost. At Nevis, a ship commanded by Capt. Chivers, laden with sugar, was lost, with two people. Some vessels are said to have been driven ashore at Martinico.

A meeting was lately held at Ellesmere, in Shropshire, to enter into a subscription for making a canal to connect the rivers Mersey, Dee, and Severn; near 800,000*l.* was subscribed, by upwards of a thousand people, which will reduce the number of shares of individuals to a very few, as out of 200,000*l.* (the sum wanted) 28,000*l.* was reserved for the land-owners, and 12,000*l.* had been previously subscribed by the Committee. But a gentleman of Chester opened a subscription, in opposition, for a

cut on the eastern line, and only dednamed a deposit of one-half per cent. This was likewise filled.

According to letters from Cornwall, the harvest is plentiful, but there is a scarcity of hands to get it in, occasioned by the great number of persons employed in the mines, the profits of which have lately exceeded every former period.

MARRIED.

At Bath, Thomas Ahmuty, of Marlbro'. buildings, Esq. to Mrs. Quin, sister of Sir Henry Cavendish, Bart. and mother of Lady Hedford.

At Hampton, the Rev. Thomas Bowen, to Miss Voelcker, of the same place.

Christopher Hodgson, Esq. banker, of Malton, Yorkshire, to Miss Eliz. Gilder.

Richard Moore, Esq. youngest son of the late Blunden Moore, Esq. of Byfleet, Surrey, to Miss Trimmer, daughter of the deceased James Trimmer, Esq. of Brentford.

The Rev. John Mead Ray, of Sudbury, to Miss Fenn, of the same place.

The Rev. Thomas Bargas, of Winchester, to Miss Kingman.

Thomas Lynch Goldburn, Esq. of the island of Jamaica, to Miss Mawbey, daughter of Sir Joseph Mawbey.

The Hon. Augustus Phipps, to Miss Thelluson.

Edward Vavasour, Esq. of Weston-hall, Yorkshire, to Miss Augusta Sutton.

At Chesterfield, the Rev. Mr. Finley, to Miss Charlotte Watson.

William Whitmore, jun. Esq. to Miss Wright, of Norwood.

The Rev. R. Nichols, chaplain to the Earl of Bute, to Miss Woodward.

The Rev. Ch. Vyse Ashwell, of the island of Grenada, to Miss Fanny Whitehouse, of Walworth.

The Rev. Thomas Braithwaite, D. D. to Miss Cooke, of Manchester.

Major John Mc. Kinnon, of the 63d regiment, to Lady Margaret Affleck.

Lieut. Torkington, of the marines, to Miss Burn.

W. E. Willy, jun. of Carlton-house, Nottinghamshire, to Miss Spry, of Great Cumberland-street.

The Rev. Thomas Hind, of Ardley, in Oxfordshire, to Miss Lane, of Mile-End, Bucks.

DIED.

On his way to Geneva, Lieutenant-Colonel Frazer, late of the engineers.

The Rev. Talbot Harris, M. A. rector of Upton Warren, and vicar of Powick, in Oxfordshire.

Lieutenant General Phillipson, Colonel of the 3d regiment of dragoon guards.

In King-street, St. James's-square, John Bertles, Esq.

At

At Walthamstow, Mrs. Long, relict of Mr. Deputy Long, of Bishopgate-street.

At Holyroodhouse, Mrs. Harland.

At Tunbridge Wells, John Hankey, Esq.

At Hammermith, in the 73d year of her age, Mrs. Martha Winter, widow of the late John Winter, Esq. of Hanover-square.

At Edinburgh, Mrs. Elizabeth Dundas, daughter of Robert Dundas, of Arncliffe, Lord President of the Court of Session.

At Ludlow, Lady Cotterell, relict of Sir John Cotterell, of Garnons, in Herefordshire.

At Edinburgh, Mrs. Margaret Campbell, relict of Thomas Frazer, Esq. of Strichen, niece to the first Duke of Argyll, first cousin to the Great John Duke of Argyll and Greenwich, and to the three successive dukes. She was sister in law and first cousin to the late Countess Dowager of Bute, and very nearly related to the noble families of Buccleugh, Lothian, &c. and grandmother to the Lady of Sir R. Perrot, Bart.—Notwithstanding her extreme old age, 90, she retained her senses to the last.

At Wells, Somersetshire, aged 84, Mr. James Everdel, many years clerk at Chambers, to the Hon. Mr. Justice Gould.

At the house of T. Younghusband, Esq. of Elwick, Northumberland, where he was on a visit, Lieut. George Younghusband.

Mrs. Furnell, of Marlborough, in the 34th year of her age.

In Edinburgh, Capt. John Lockhart Nasmith, of the royal navy.

At Willey, in Herefordshire, Thomas Legge, Esq. aged 70.

At Barking, Essex, Joseph Keeling, Esq. collector of the customs at Barbadoes.

At Greenock, aged 74, the Rev. Dr. John Adams.

Aged 74, the Right Hon. Charles Leigh, Lord Viscount Tracy.

The Rev. Dr. John Rofs, bishop of Exeter.

Hon. John Lewison Gower, brother to the Marquis of Stafford.

Mrs. Hicks, of Bath.

Capt. Wm. Elliot, of the royal navy.

The Rev. Robert Wadsworth, rector of Howe, in Norfolk.

Aged 69, Wm. Gibson, Esq. of Cheyne-walk.

Aged 80, Ferdinando Collins, Esq. of Betterton, in Berkshire.

John Hustle, Esq. of Sion House, near Kidderminster.

Aged 110, at Red Ruth, in Cornwall, Mrs. Joan Harrington.

Joseph Hetherington, Esq. surveyor of the king's warehouse.

Aged 82, Mr. Elias White, of the Pleas Office.

Aged 80, Dr. John Smyth, of Chipping-Norton.

At Bandirran, Capt. Patrick Drummond, of the royal navy.

At Peterham, the Lady of James Jackson, Esq.

BANKRUPTS.

Ralph Jennings, of Bath, jeweller. John Corbett, of Shiffhall, Salop, grocer. John Whitaker, of Loadhill Platting, Yorkthire, clothier. Thomas Smith, of Chester, dealer. John Jupp, late of St. Giles's in the Fields, upholsterer. Francis Hewitt, of Watling-street, silk-manufacturer. W. L. Adams, of Pantion-street, Haymarket, mercer. Ann Wilkes and William David Wilks, of Portsmouth, ironmongers. Philip Millar, of Mile-end, mariner. Joseph Atlay, c^o Bristol, dealer. Edward Hewitt, of Middle Moorfields, weaver. George Padmore, late of Garra-lane, Wandsworth, callico printer. William Jones, of Lampeter, Carligan, drover. Benjamin Kennett, of Essex-wharf, Westminster, coal-merchant. Charles Booth, of Stockport, Chester, linen-draper. John Crowther, of Leeds, millwright. John Buckley, of Bermondsey-street, woollstapler. John Buckley, John Footman, and John Garniss, of Ingarestone, Essex, brewers. John Crowe, of Queen-street, Golden-square, staymaker. John Lambert, of Oxford-street, hatter. P. G. Monteiro, late of Dove court, Lombard-street, merchant. John West, of Westminster, carpenter. Francis Hathway, of Little St. Thomas the Apostle, broker. John James, of Llandevoyfon, Carmarthen, dealer. John Pike and Thomas Crawford, of Leadenhall-street, druggists. John Buckley and Philip Garniss, now or late of Bury St. Edmund's, brewers. Joshua Smith, now or late of Hill, York, merchant. John Whitfield, of Tower-street, coal merchant. Devenport Sedley, late of Nicholas-lane, Lombard-street, linen-factor. J. B. Sumner, late of Bourn End, Hertfordshire, paper-maker. Matthew Clark, of Swan-lane, Rotherhithe, mariner. William Coudery, of Walthamstow, oilman. Hugh Crawford, of Goodman's-yard, Minorities, earthenware-man. Joseph and Abraham Delvallee, of Featherstone-street, Old-street, tobacconists. William Thurlow, of Boxford, Suffolk, shopkeeper. J. C. Shackleton, of Bread-street, warehousman. Benjamin Montague, of Lambridge, Bath, merchant. Richard Michellson, of Great Portland-street, linen-draper. George Fisher, of White Hart-yard, Drury-lane, woollen-draper. J. W. Brookes, of Cirencester, surgeon. John Featherston, of Stockport, Chester, shopkeeper. Thomas Hilton, late of Liverpool, vintner. William White, of Rosomon-street, Clerkenwell, timber-merchant. Mary Ann Overton, of Edgeware-road, grocer. Peter M'Keand and James M'Gouchin, of Manchester, merchants. Joseph Lawrence, jun. late of Fareham, Southampton, miller.

